

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

AN INTERNATIONAL MAGAZINE

NOVEMBER

Closing the Campaign

A Builder of Universities

The Problem of the Sky-Scraper

The Crisis in Turkey and the Balkans

San Francisco's War With Plague

The Opening Music Season

Inspecting Our Meats

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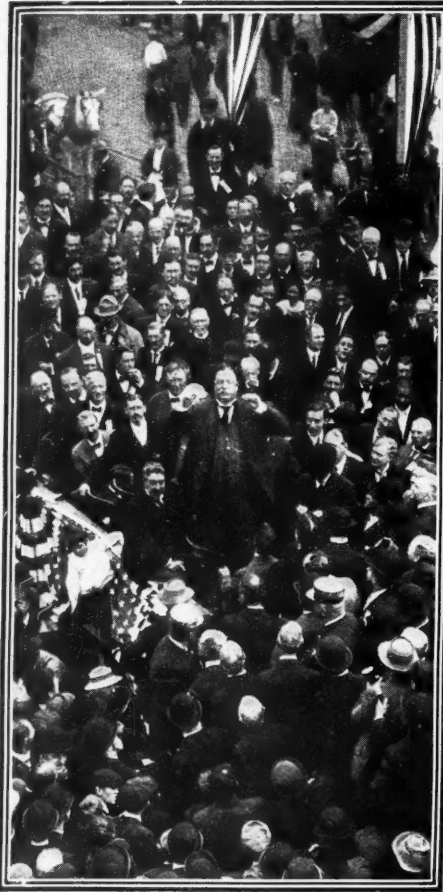
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MR. TAFT SPEAKING TO AN OUT-OF-DOOR CROWD  
LAST MONTH.

chief place in the administration of national affairs. When the mere claptrap is eliminated from the various party platforms of the present year, and when the real sentiment of thoughtful men in the different parties is ascertained, the differences are not profound. No section or element of either the Republican or the Democratic party really demands or expects just now a revision of the tariff that shall be revolutionary or that shall upset established business conditions. The thoughtful men of both great parties declare that interstate commerce in its larger corporate forms must be kept firmly under the regulation and control of the national Government. When it comes to the details as to how such control shall be exercised, the men who are best fit to express an opinion are not actually separated by adherence to a

Democratic as against a Republican policy. In private talk there seem to be few appreciable differences of opinion as between fair-minded Republicans and Democrats. A very intelligent English editor and publicist now in this country finds an amazing state of general harmony, and that the one question seems to be, which candidate will best carry on the business of the Government.

*Qualities of  
the Taft  
Campaign.*

The discussions of the campaign have not carried the mind of the country very far from points of view and conditions as they existed in July. No fundamental party issues have emerged, because none actually exist. Both great parties are more or less mixed up with the selfishness and false conservatism of private interests. The ablest and best men in both parties are sincerely devoted to the public welfare. Mr. Taft's participation in the campaign has taken him as far West as Mr. Bryan's home town of Lincoln, Neb., where he was received with great courtesy by men of all parties. He has been seen and heard in many cities and towns of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Nebraska, Kansas, and Missouri. He has achieved enhanced personal prestige by friendly but frank addresses in Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, and Virginia, and he has spoken in New York and other Eastern States. We were in great danger at one stage of the campaign of drifting away

TAFT COURTING THE SOLID SOUTH.  
From the *Herald* (Washington).

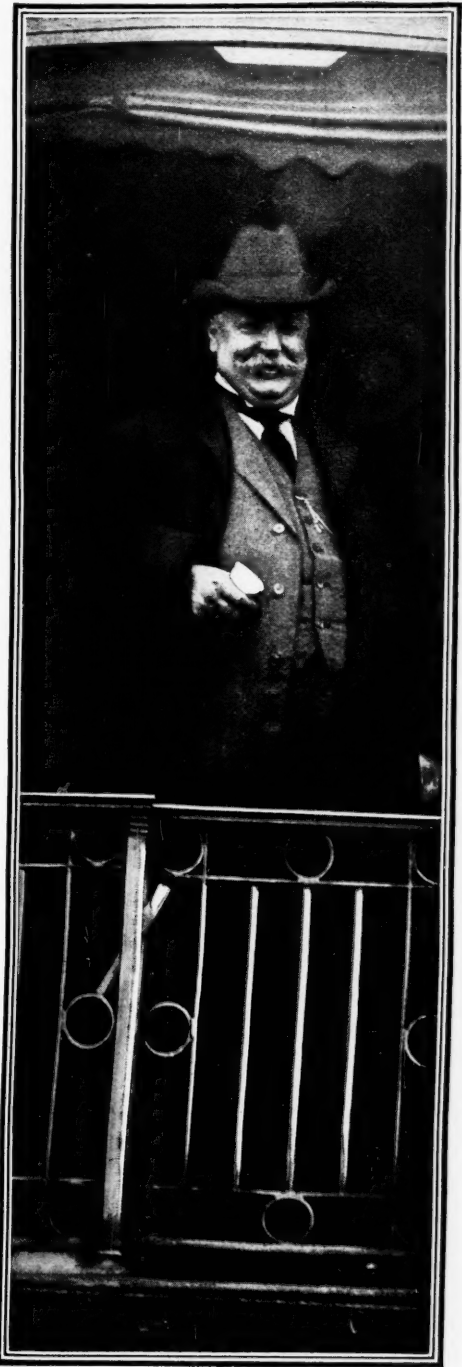
from essential things and indulging in personalities more bitter than the facts could fully warrant. The courteous reception of Mr. Taft in the South helped not a little to bring the campaign back to a more fitting tone of dignity and fairness. Mr. Taft's speeches have endeavored to strengthen the impression that the Republican party is a more trustworthy instrument of government than the Democratic. His chief success as a speaker has consisted in the strengthened impression the country has gained of his own excellent qualities.

*Taft's  
Speeches and  
Personality.*

Mr. Taft has talked of the tariff, the regulation of railroads and trusts, the position of the courts with relation to labor, the unsettled problems of currency and banking, and various other public matters. Many of those who are going to vote for him do not agree with him upon one or another of these topics, and are not deeply impressed by his specific arguments. What they say is that Taft is a man of great intelligence, fine sincerity, unblemished honor, and almost unequalled public experience, with a well-nigh ideal fitness to occupy the White House at the present time and carry on the business that belongs to the office of the chief magistrate of this country. They hold that legislative matters in any case will have to be fought out in Congress. The Republican party as a whole feels that it has a candidate worthy in character and record of its best traditions. This feeling about Mr. Taft seems to have grown steadily throughout the campaign. Among the Republican orators none has more sharply defined the matters really to be taken into account this year than Senator Beveridge and Governor Hughes. The Governor of New York made some exceedingly taking speeches in the Middle West, while Senator Beveridge made strong speeches at strategic points all the way from New York to the Pacific Coast and back by another route to his own State of Indiana for the closing days of the campaign.

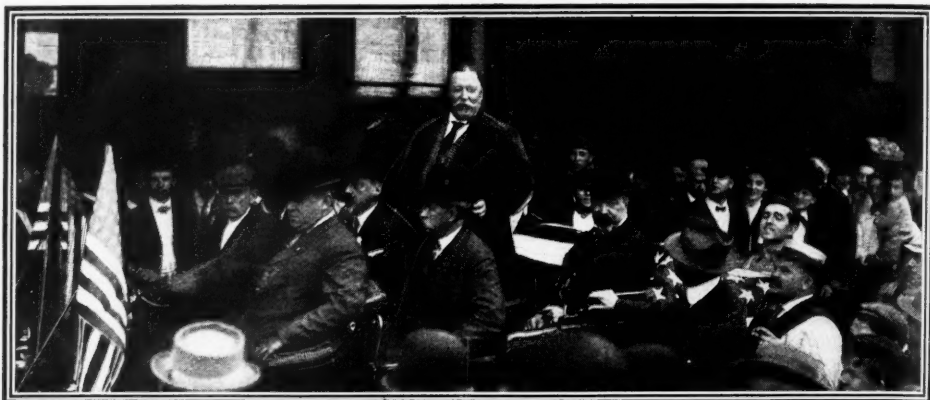
*Bryan's  
Splendid  
Fight.*

Mr. Bryan, on the Democratic side, has been the star campaigner, showing his old-time physical endurance, and even more than his old-time skill and attractiveness as a debater. He has spoken for tariff reform, for consistent and thorough control of corporations, the guarantee of bank deposits, a change of federal practice in the matter of injunctions



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MR. TAFT AS HE HAS BEEN SEEN BY MANY THOUSANDS OF HIS FELLOW CITIZENS ON THE PLATFORM OF HIS CAMPAIGN CAR.



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MR. TAFT SPEAKING IN A RAILROAD STATION.

against workingmen's strikes, and so on. The country does not seem inclined to believe that the guarantee of bank deposits is properly a national party issue at this time. The Republicans have had the best of the argument in discussing the feasibility of such a scheme. When it comes to the matter of injunctions and the labor question, Mr. Taft has spoken out of his experience as a judge with sincerity and frankness. In no case would Congress be likely to make any change in the laws affecting this subject that would go beyond what Mr. Taft regards as feasible and proper. If Mr. Taft should be elected, there will be a special session of the new Congress which is to be chosen at the pending election almost immediately after the inauguration in March.

*The  
Tariff  
Outlook.*

If Mr. Bryan is elected, the Senate will remain Republican and the House will probably be quite evenly divided. It is not likely that Mr. Bryan would call an extra session to consider the tariff, and it would seem that some of the ultra high protectionists are inclined to favor Mr. Bryan's election on the ground that in such a case nothing could be accomplished for several years toward a modification of the Dingley schedules. If Mr. Taft should be elected, the attempt would be made to give the country a more scientific and business-like tariff law on the plan of maximum and minimum rates, the lower rates to be given to countries which are in a position to treat us in the corresponding manner. The South, which forms the one large and certain factor in the Democratic party, is growing so fast in the variety

and extent of its manufactures that it no longer opposes the protectionist policy as strongly as it formerly did when its industrial character was almost wholly agricultural. The other most important single element in the Democratic party is Tammany Hall, which controls the Democratic party in the great State of New York. Unless New York should give its electoral vote to Mr. Bryan, there would not seem to be much chance of defeating Mr. Taft. But it must be remembered that the dominant factors in New York Democracy have no conviction upon the tariff question, and are not, indeed, as likely to be in favor of thorough tariff reform as are the Republicans of the West. Thus conditions are such that the Democratic party can no longer wage a consistent and powerful fight against the Republican doctrine of a protective tariff. The tariff is a business man's question, and various associations of manufacturers, merchants, and other business men are studying it either as respects particular schedules or else as regards its general character. It will not be possible to revise the tariff without some very sharp controversies; but these disputes do not seem likely to produce cleavage upon the old-time party lines. The Republicans are more likely to revise the tariff than are the Democrats, and neither party at present is likely to go very far toward the policy of a tariff for revenue only.

*Parties  
and the  
Budget.*

When it comes to extravagance of expenditure, the Democrats attack the Republicans severely; but the things that are demanded in the Democratic platform would cost the country



MR. BRYAN AS HE APPEARED DURING HIS MARVELOUS SPEAKING CAMPAIGN.

quite as much as those that the Republicans stand for, and there does not seem any marked choice between the two parties in this regard. Certainly the men responsible for the Roosevelt Administration are justified in saying that they have tried hard to justify expenditure by efficiency, and to give good results where public money is used. Thus the expenditure at Panama is more efficient than it would be under private contractors, and the same thing is eminently true of the work on the Government's irrigation projects. Mr. Roosevelt's Administration has not been a scandalous one, but, on the contrary, has been one that the country ought to be proud of in its high average of public spirit, honesty, and freedom from the taint of corruption or so-called "graft." The Republicans continue to spend a great deal of money for pensions, but the Democratic platform endorses such expenditure and attempts to outbid the Republicans for the vote of the veterans.

*Would Bryan  
Prosecute  
Trusts?*

When it comes to the country's further policy as regards the control of railroads and industrial corporations, most sincere and thoughtful men are of opinion that Congress ought to take prompt action, so that a better law

than the Sherman Anti-Trust law might guide the executive in its duties. The Democratic platform lays down the principle that any corporation doing half of the business of the country in its particular line ought to be restrained from increasing the volume of its trade. This magazine promptly pointed out the impossibility of any such method, and the leading Republican speakers have analyzed the proposition in order to show how completely it fails. The general spirit, however, of Mr. Bryan's contention is more understandable than his proposed remedies. He is thoroughly opposed to the existence of the great corporations known as trusts. He has failed to deal frankly with one very important practical question,—namely, what he would do about prosecuting trusts if he were President, under the laws as they now exist. It is to be inferred from things that he has said that he would bring suits against the Steel Corporation and a number of other large business concerns, on the ground that by reason of their magnitude, if for no other reason, their existence is in violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust law. A policy of wholesale prosecutions would be disturbing to business. In our opinion the tendency toward the large forms of corporate enterprise is natural and legitimate, and all that is needed



is public control and a legal remedy of a reasonable sort for any real wrong that such corporations may commit against the rights of others. Mr. Bryan labors under the advantages and at the same time the disadvantages of a man who has been a critic and an opposition orator, without any of the tempering responsibilities of office. He has been accustomed to approach subjects from the theoretical standpoint. This was true in his silver campaign of 1896, it was not less true in his anti-imperialism campaign of 1900, and it seems to be the case now in his position on economic and financial issues.

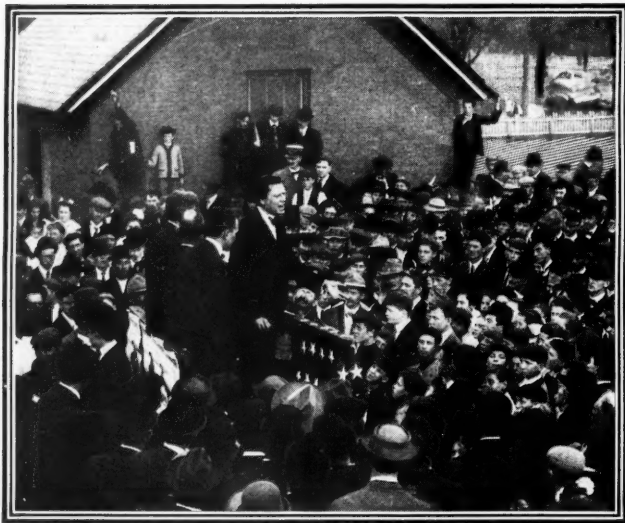
*Bryan and  
New York  
Politics.*

It would be fortunate if we could hold a Presidential election upon its own merits, and thus detach from it the State issues which are in many cases of extreme importance. It is, of course, possible for the voter in his polling booth to mark his ticket according to his liking; but it is not always easy to vote a split ticket, and the tendency is to accept the entire party column, especially as the ballot paper is arranged in the State of New York. Thus, in the Empire State, Mr. Bryan is at the mercy to a great extent of a situation created by Murphy and Conners, who control the Democratic organization. It is within reasonable bounds to say that these men have comparatively little interest in the national ticket, and very great interest in securing control of the State government. The things that they stand for and seek are not the things that

Mr. Bryan's Western friends believe that he stands for or desires. Among thoughtful and public-spirited men there ought to be very little question as to what is the better choice in the field of New York State politics this year. Mr. Chanler, the Democratic nominee for Governor, is a man of sympathetic qualities and good standing, but he would seem to be in a false position, and he has wholly failed to meet Governor Hughes frankly in the discussion of State issues. In a general way he stands for what is called "personal liberty," and attacks what he calls "government by commission."

*Hughes  
versus  
Chanler.*

The personal-liberty matter has to do with the legislation against race-track gambling, which Governor Hughes forced to a successful passage, in accordance with the requirements of the State constitution. Again and again Mr. Chanler has been challenged to say whether or not he desires the repeal of this recent legislation. He had refused to answer, up to our going to press. "Government by commission" has practical reference to the public-utilities law under which the railroads, trolley lines, and other franchise-using corporations are brought under regulation through the agency of two commissions, one for the State at large and the other for New York City. These two boards have rendered excellent service thus far. Mr. Chanler would not say whether or not he would advocate the repeal of the law creating these boards, and would not say under what form he would seek to have the State exercise control over public-service corporations. Mr. Hughes returned from the West in order to spend the last three weeks of the campaign in his own State, and his spirited defense of his measures and methods as Governor was so effective that it seemed to be making votes for him every day. Earlier in the campaign it was the prevailing opinion that Taft would carry the State, but that Governor Hughes would be defeated. This opinion about the State situation, however, was rapidly changing as these



MR. CHANLER AS A CAMPAIGNER.

pages were closed for the press. Early in the campaign a clever cartoon raised the question, Will the Republicans find Governor Hughes an asset or a liability? The conclusive answer to this question must await the counting of the votes on November 3. But most of the Republicans who had been skeptical at first were of the opinion by the middle of October that Mr. Hughes had already shown himself to be a valuable asset. Mr. Bryan is not responsible for Murphy and Conners, but his party must face the fact that national victory depends upon the results in the State of New York, and that if that State goes Democratic, Murphy and Conners will claim all the credit and expect ample rewards.

*Mr.  
Hearst's  
Attacks.*

The most sensational incidents in the campaign have been due to the activities of Mr. William R. Hearst. In speaking for the Independence party, Mr. Hearst's attacks have been directed against both of the old parties, but particularly against the Democratic organization in the national campaign and in the State of New York. His disclosures led to the resignation of Governor Haskell, of Oklahoma, from his post as treasurer of the Democratic National Committee. Governor Haskell had been selected by Mr. Bryan as chairman of the committee on resolutions at the Denver convention, and it was said that he might have been made national chairman if he had not preferred the treasurership. It was also said that he was slated for the position of Secretary of the Treasury in case of Bryan's election. Mr. Hearst undertook to show that Haskell was an agent of the Standard Oil Company; and within a few days a number of statements of an uncomplimentary kind were made in different quarters regarding Mr. Haskell's former career as a promoter in Wall Street. The retirement of Haskell did not reflect in any way upon Mr. Bryan's sincerity and good faith, but it cast a very decided doubt upon his judgment as to the character and quality of his political associates.

*The  
"Standard  
Oil"  
Letters.*

Mr. Hearst's opportunities for assault were not confined to the record of Haskell, for various other Democratic leaders came in for his castigations, among whom were the bosses of the Democratic machine in the city and State of New York. He was ably seconded in these attacks by Mr. Clarence J. Shearn,



Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.

GOVERNOR HUGHES IN A CHARACTERISTIC ATTITUDE.

the Independence party's candidate for the New York governorship. Mr. Hearst had come into possession of copies of a number of letters written by a high officer of the Standard Oil Company to various public men, especially United States Senators, together with their replies. These letters were served out at different times by Mr. Hearst,



GOVERNOR HUGHES SPEAKING IN WESTERN NEW YORK.

and their bearings were such as to give them a place of decided influence in the campaign. To the first of these letters, showing Senator Foraker to have received checks from the Standard Oil Company for legal or other services, reference was made in these pages last month.

*Foraker  
and  
Taft.*

The Democrats were rather too eager to make it appear that the Foraker letters were campaign ammunition as against Mr. Taft and the Republican cause. This fact led President Roosevelt to make a statement in the course of which he reproduced a letter written some months before the Chicago convention by Mr. Taft to a friend in Ohio, in which Mr. Taft absolutely refused to be a party to any compromise with the Foraker wing of the party in that State. It had seemed at one time as if Mr. Foraker might be able to prevent Taft's nomination; and it was proposed to pacify the Foraker supporters by agreeing to re-elect Mr. Foraker for another term in the Senate in consideration of their acquiescing in Mr. Taft's nomination for

the Presidency. Mr. Roosevelt showed convincingly that Mr. Taft had not been making bargains; and Senator Foraker dropped quietly out of the campaign.

*The  
Haskell  
Incident.*

Mr. Roosevelt took up the charges against Haskell, in consequence of which Mr. Bryan came out in a letter to the President defending Haskell, and challenging Mr. Roosevelt to produce any evidence against the Oklahoma Governor. The President's reply was a very vigorous campaign document, and Mr. Haskell soon retired from the Democratic National Committee, declaring that he would bring suits against those who had defamed his character. Subsequently he served papers on Mr. Hearst in proceedings for slander. Little had been known by old-line Democrats about the Bryan man who had forged to the front in the new State of Oklahoma. The Oklahoma constitution has always been praised by Mr. Bryan, and Governor Haskell has been regarded as responsible for the many innovations in this remarkable document.



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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AS HE LOOKED LAST MONTH.

*The President in the Campaign.* There was a good deal of pressure brought to bear upon President Roosevelt early in the campaign to make a few speeches, and while there is no law, either written or unwritten, against such participation in the campaign by the President of the country, it was Mr. Roosevelt's opinion that it would be better to follow what has been the general custom. In many ways the President has helped to put vigor into the Taft campaign, and to make the high motives and untarnished char-

acter of the Republican candidate clear to the people of the country. He has been consulted about the conduct of the campaign, and has followed every step in its progress with his usual keenness of insight and unequalled talent for practical politics. He has been careful to allow Mr. Taft's personality to make its own impress upon the public, and has well known from the beginning that the foolish charge of Mr. Taft's being merely Roosevelt's candidate would answer itself. Mr. Roosevelt did not force Mr. Taft upon





MR. HEARST IN THE NEW YORK FIGHT.

the party, but rather in a sensible and proper way helped the party to reach a cordial and unanimous agreement upon the man best fitted to be the standard bearer. The Republican party is made up of strong men who do their own thinking, and select their own candidates, and President Roosevelt could not force a nominee upon the party against its preferences. It was not Mr. Roosevelt who tried to do the forcing, but rather the coalition of powerful political leaders who attempted in vain to thwart the will of the party and prevent Mr. Taft's nomination. For years Mr. Roosevelt has said that if either William H. Taft or Elihu Root became President we would have in that office a great statesman of the class of Washington and Lincoln. It is a silly and ill-informed person who supposes that Mr. Roosevelt would expect either to dictate the policies of his successor or to bring any undue influence to bear upon his mind. The whole course of the campaign has shown how singularly untrammelled is Mr. Taft's position.

#### Campaign Contributions.

Apart from those unpleasant recriminations that grew out of the series of Standard Oil letters, the chief topic of a disagreeable and personal sort in the campaign has been that of contributions to the party funds. The subject has had a great deal more attention than it merited. Neither party has had a large fund this year, and the Republicans in particular have learned how to work effectively with much less money than in former elections. The Democrats, to begin with, are in possession of the "Solid South," where no effort has to be made to get out the vote, and no money is needed. They usually have to mass their effort in a few States which are regarded as doubtful. They usually have plenty of money in the State of New York, because Tammany Hall can always lay abundant tribute upon various sources of revenue. The Democrats had taken to themselves great credit because of Mr. Bryan's promise at the opening of the campaign that contributions would be published on Octo-



MR. C. J. SHEARN, OF NEW YORK.

(Candidate for Governor on the Independence party ticket.)



ber 15. The names of the larger givers were announced on that date, and the sum total of \$248,567 was acknowledged. While there is no sufficient reason to assert that any bad faith was shown in this plan of publicity, it is obvious enough that ample ways could have been found for evasion. Thus many men prefer to contribute to State or county campaign funds, which can easily be managed in such a way as to count toward exactly the same expenditures as if they had contributed to the National Committee. Yet no attempt was made to give publicity to such contributions. Furthermore, there are many ways by which donors can pay directly for items of political expenditure without passing the money through any of the campaign committees, whether local or national. Thus, it is very customary for donors to put contributions directly into the hands of State or Congressional candidates to enable them to carry on their canvasses, and such gifts can usually escape notice altogether.

*Publicity  
and  
Evasion.*

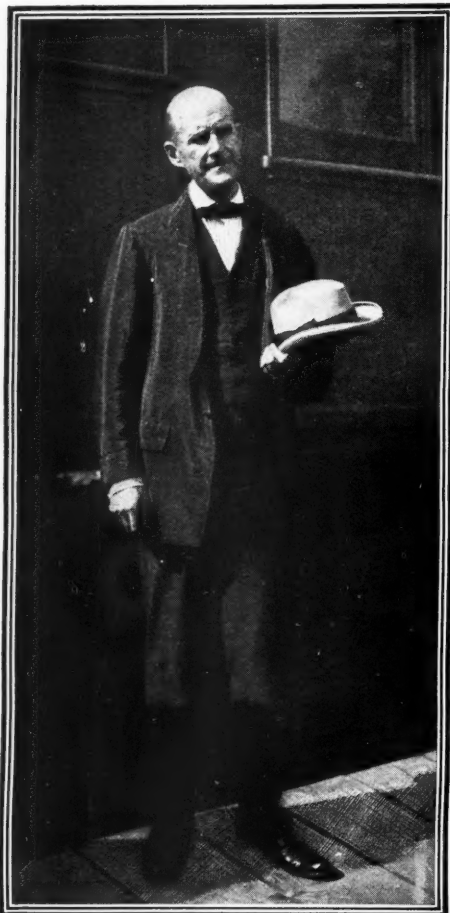
The names of many men who might have been expected to make the largest Democratic gifts did not appear in the list published on October 15. An easy form of evasion, of course, would be to give advance promises or assurances, but to withhold payments until the closing days of the campaign, or even

until after election, since many bills can be held over,—such as those for printing or payment of speakers,—until the close of the campaign. The Republican National Committee has promised to give publicity to its receipts and expenditures in a sworn statement after election, according to the terms of the New York State law. Generally speaking, the corporations as such have evidently not been contributing to either campaign fund, and corporation officials in their capacity as citizens have not been giving extravagant sums. Some prominent business men have given generously toward Mr. Bryan's election, and a larger number have contributed toward the expenses of the Taft campaign. There is no mystery about the uses to which the money is put. There are bills for printing and advertising, for the expenses of speakers, for meetings, for office rent and salaries, and, last, but not least, for providing watchers at the polls, and for vehicles and other means to give the old and the infirm a chance to cast their ballots. The Republicans have been compelled through lack of large central funds to develop the principle of local home rule and financial independence in States and localities. There has been very little money for bunting or brass bands or club uniforms or red fire. The public welfare is not dependent upon large campaign funds, and no great injury has resulted from the poverty of party treasuries, although the Taft forces could have accomplished more energetic work of an entirely legitimate sort if their revenues had been more generous. The work of Mr. Hitchcock and his associates has been systematic and intelligent, and its effects were becoming more apparent every day as the month of October advanced. The Democratic campaign, on the other hand, has been carried on with much greater enthusiasm and ability than that of four years ago, and its press management has been exceptionally alert and capable. So much opprobrium has in the past been cast upon the giving of money for political purposes that many excellent citizens have this year shrunk from giving anything at all, because they objected to the publication of their names. As a matter of fact, it is entirely honorable and proper to give reasonably generous sums toward the expenses of a campaign, and experience shows that it is better upon the whole that gifts should be made openly than secretly. Where corrupt organizations like Tammany Hall participate in politics, it is obvious that



"FODDER LOW!"

From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).



EUGENE V. DEBS BESIDE HIS FAMOUS "RED SPECIAL."

no way can ever be found to compel a really honest disclosure of receipts and expenditures.

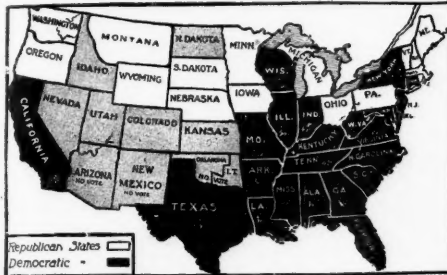
*Forecasts  
of the  
Result.*

As the end of the campaign approached, the belief that Mr. Taft would be elected was stronger than it had been in September. The activity and success of the Socialist campaign were admitted on all hands, so that the article contributed to the September number of this magazine by Mr. Robert Hunter was fully borne out by all the visible signs. The Socialists had thought that they might poll a million votes, and as the campaign reached its climax there were expert observers who thought that the vote for Debs might go far beyond the million mark. It was generally admitted that the Debs vote would be drawn more largely from Bryan than from Taft.

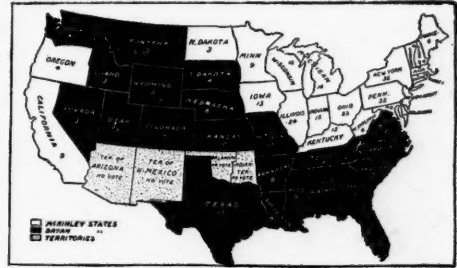
The work of Mr. Hisgen, Mr. Hearst, Mr. Shearn, and the Independence party leaders, especially in the State of New York, was far more effective against the Democrats than against the Republicans. Mr. Chanler, the Democratic candidate for Governor, was mercilessly assailed by Shearn and Hearst, while not a word was said by these gentlemen against the character or conduct of Governor Hughes. That a great mass of workmen in the State of New York would vote for Bryan was beyond question, while, generally speaking, the regular Democrats were supporting their ticket. Many well-known individuals, however, of Democratic proclivities were out for Taft, and, furthermore, the registration results were favorable to the Republicans. The new registration law of New York is so exacting that it would seem to have frightened away the gangs of repeaters usually colonized by Tammany in the lodging houses of the lower East Side. The consequence was a decided falling off in the registration totals for the Democratic parts of the city, and a relative gain for the Republican districts.

*Elections  
in the  
States.*

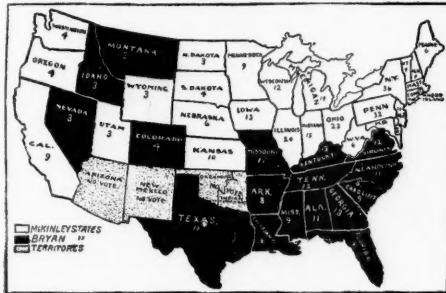
All these things and many others serve to confirm the belief that Taft would carry the State of New York. And reports from the rest of the country also made it seem certain enough that without New York Bryan could not hope to win the election. Yet the Democrats have been justified in holding that they had a good fighting chance, and nobody can be sure of the results until the votes are counted on the night of November 3. As a matter of convenient reference we print small maps showing at a glance how the States were divided between the two parties in the last four Presidential elections. It is to be remembered that besides Presidential electors there are to be chosen on November 3 the members of the Sixty-first Congress. While the Republicans expect to have a majority in the new House, they admit that they will lose some seats. State elections have already been held in Oregon, Maine, and Vermont, and partially in Arkansas and Georgia. In twenty-eight other States there are State officers to be chosen; in many, but not in all, there will be elections for governors, and in many also there will be elections for legislatures. The terms of thirty-one United States Senators, nineteen of whom are Republicans and twelve Democrats, will expire on the 4th of next March. There are Senatorial



Cleveland—Harrison, 1892.



McKinley—Bryan, 1896.



McKinley—Bryan, 1900.



Roosevelt—Parker, 1904.

IN THE ABOVE DIAGRAMS THE WHITE INDICATES STATES CARRIED BY REPUBLICANS, THE BLACK BY DEMOCRATS. IN 1892, WHEN CLEVELAND WAS ELECTED, FIVE WESTERN STATES WERE CARRIED BY POPULISTS,—NAMELY, COLORADO, IDAHO, KANSAS, NEVADA, AND NORTH DAKOTA.

contests pending in many States in connection with the contests for the State legislatures. There is a marked tendency toward bringing the election of Senators, either through direct primaries or in some other way, more directly before the voters at large. Besides the State elections there are thousands of county and local contests to be decided on November 3.

*A Year  
After the  
Panic.*

This magazine goes to press just a year after the breaking out of the panic of 1907, resulting in the suspension of fifteen banks in New York and Brooklyn, and of several trust companies, one of them with deposits of nearly \$50,000,000. On October 25, 1907, it would have been difficult to find a man with the clear vision and courage to predict that after one year all of these banks would have paid their depositors in full, except two, and those just in the act of furnishing a complete satisfaction of their deposit liabilities. But such is the result of the vigorous and intelligent work of rehabilitation. From the purely monetary point of view, it was a very great panic, and this result is a very great record. This anniversary month sees, too, the dissolution of the Committee of Five,

which last fall supplied \$30,000,000 to the several trust companies which were about to go under before the attack of excited and frightened depositors. All the loans made to these institutions by the committee have been repaid in full. Turning from the money houses to industrial operation, as gauged by railroad activity, the number of idle cars, which had risen to the enormous total of 413,000 on April 29, was reduced to less than 150,000 this October. A chief reason for this very sudden re-employment of cars was the unprecedentedly sharp movement of grain in September. With stock at the grain centers low, with a shortage in Europe, and a fine new 1908 wheat crop larger than last year's, there was logically a very rapid improvement in activity and gross earnings for the railroads in September. General imports through New York increased \$6,000,000 over September. Bank exchanges increased 5 per cent. in September. But, perhaps, the most vital industrial suggestion of the year comes in the gradual turning of the tide of emigration. Through the past year the swarm of outward-bound European-born workers has fallen off, until, in September, the immigrants exceeded the outgo by a re-



RUIN WROUGHT BY FOREST FIRES IN NORTHERN NEW YORK STATE,—FREIGHT TRAIN DESTROYED.

spectable majority. The old country has decided that work will again be easy to get in America.

*The Bank  
Guarantee  
Plan.*

At the meeting of the American Bankers' Association in Denver, in October, the chief topic of discussion was Mr. Bryan's plan for the Government guarantee of deposits, through taxing all the banks to pay the depositors of any institutions that are unable to pay. While this project has probably already had more attention than it deserved, as a leading political issue in a Presidential campaign, it is interesting to find the unanimity of feeling among the practical bankers at Denver that the scheme is not only unjust and beyond the proper scope of government,—matters in which bankers might not be the best authorities,—but that it is utterly ineffective for the specific purpose in hand, and promises, indeed, an invitation to the very troubles that the plan aims to obviate. Practically to a man, the Denver convention agreed that the withdrawal, through the pool guarantee, of final responsibility from a particular bank, and from the people who run it, would offer the greatest possible temptation to loose methods and to loose bankers. Nor would there, in the opinion of these business men, be the in-

centive for the customers of a bank to check up its methods of business. This check of local public opinion and resulting patronage or lack of patronage must obviously be the fundamental controlling power over too-ambitious or unscrupulous banking.

*Destructive  
Forest  
Fires.*

The forest fires of August and September, to which reference was made in our last number, proved to be the first of a long series of like disasters. Rains fell in some parts of the country and checked the devastation for a time, but the long-continued drought had left the timber lands in such a condition that nothing short of a thorough drenching could be a safeguard against further ravaging by the flames. In many of the most extensive forest areas, from New York to Minnesota, no such drenching came. In October, destructive fires spread rapidly over whole counties, licking up towns in their progress, and devouring human lives as well as property. In the State of Michigan (upper and lower peninsula) the loss is estimated at not less than \$10,000,000. But no estimate can express the actual wreckage of business interests and the setbacks to our national prosperity that have directly resulted from this awful waste.



*Real Trouble  
in the  
Balkans.*

The real "trouble in the Balkans," predicted every spring for a quarter of a century, has come at last. The international political drama last month in which Bulgaria, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Servia figured as the chief actors, with Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, and Italy actively shifting the scenery in the background, has been the most nerve-straining and portentous that Europe has witnessed for a generation or more. A strike on a comparatively unknown railway line in southeastern Europe and the omission of the name of the petty political agent of a small principality from the list of those invited to a diplomatic dinner in Constantinople, these two insignificant happenings, late in September, put in motion a chain of events that have already altered the map of Europe as it has been known for more than a quarter of a century, and may yet precipitate a general European war.

*The Strike on  
the Oriental  
Railway.*

The Oriental Railway, an enterprise in which the Constantinople government has a proprietary interest, extending from Turkey proper across Eastern Rumelia into Bulgaria, and forming part of the trunk-line from Vienna to Constantinople, was completely paralyzed by a strike of several weeks, beginning early in September. Bulgarian troops, "in order to prevent violence, provisionally occupied" that part of the line in Bulgarian territory. When this military occupation had lasted a fortnight, although the strike had been suppressed, the Turkish Chargé d'Affaires at Sofia, the Bulgarian capital, announced to Prince Ferdinand's government that the continued control of the line by Bulgarian troops was not only a violation of Bulgaria's agreement with the railway company, but an infringement of Turkey's proprietary rights as set forth in the treaty of Berlin. A similar announcement was also made to the embassies of the powers at Constantinople. The Bulgarian Government announced that although "the situation requires that it shall keep the Oriental Railway at present in its own hands, it has no intention whatsoever of infringing the rights of ownership or of injuring the material rights of any one." It declared, further, that it would deal in the matter directly with the railway company, not with the Turkish government. It should be said that Bulgaria's radical action in this railroad matter has been condemned by Europe generally.

*The Slight  
to Bulgaria's  
Agent.*

Meanwhile, the list of invited guests to a diplomatic dinner in Constantinople had been issued without the name of Dr. J. S. Gueshov, Bulgarian agent at the Turkish capital. When the government of Prince Ferdinand protested against this omission the Turkish Foreign Minister, Tewfik Pasha, replied that the Porte intended no offense, but that Bulgaria was a vassal state of Turkey, and its agent at Constantinople, therefore, not a real diplomatic representative who could properly be present at the function in question. Whether the continued Bulgarian occupation of the railway line was due to pique over this slight to Bulgaria's agent, or whether the agent's name was omitted from the dinner list,—perhaps at the suggestion of some other European power,—as a pointed reminder to Bulgaria of her state of vassalage to Turkey,—these are matters of speculation. If, as is reported, Tewfik Pasha desired to "crystallize the situation," he certainly succeeded.

*Revolution by  
Diplomatic  
Note.*

These minor developments of the last days of September were followed with dramatic swiftness by other developments that startled the world. On October 3 it was stated in the press dispatches that Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria-Hungary, through his Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs, Baron von Aerenthal, had sent personal autograph letters to the heads of all the great powers of Europe, the letter to President Fallières of France being delivered first. In these letters, we are told, the Austro-Hungarian monarch declared that the time had come for his government to formally extend its sovereignty over the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina,—Turkish territory which, by the terms of the treaty of Berlin, had been turned over to Austria-Hungary for occupation and administration, remaining, however, officially under the suzerainty of the Porte. But still more startling news was coming: Before the consummation of this annexation Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria, amid ceremony and parade at Tirnova, the ancient capital of the country, announced complete independence from Turkish suzerainty, and proclaimed himself "Czar of All the Bulgars." This was on October 5. Two days later the Hellenic inhabitants of the island of Crete, nine-tenths of the entire population, profiting by Turkey's extremity, suddenly repudiated Ottoman suzerainty, and proclaimed themselves





THE BALKANS AND TURKEY, SHOWING THEIR GEOGRAPHICAL RELATIONS TO THE REST OF EUROPE.

(The entire region known as the Balkans, with Turkey and including, beside the Ottoman Empire, Bulgaria, Roumania, Serbia, Montenegro, Bosnia, and Herzegovina, Dalmatia, Greece, and the Austro-Hungarian provinces of Transylvania, Croatia, and Slavonia, has an aggregate size almost exactly the same as that of the State of Texas. Turkey in Europe is the largest division, and the smallest is Herzegovina. The shaded portion of the map, embracing the Turkish vilayets of Kossovo, Monastir, and Salonika, makes up what is known to the outside world as Macedonia.)

united to Greece. Within another forty-eight hours the Servians had been wrought up to a dangerous pitch of anti-Austrian war fever over the fate of their compatriots in the annexed provinces, the little principality of Montenegro had professed its intention of joining Serbia in case of a war with Austria, large portions of the Roumanian, Bulgarian, and Turkish armies had been mobilized, ominous signs of disaffection had come from Albania and Macedonia, and all the chancelleries of Europe had been plunged into a state of the direst apprehension of a general continental war, while the stock markets of the great capitals were depressed to an extent not experienced since the days of England's war with the Boers.

*The  
Bulgarian  
Coup.*

It was in the announcement of Bulgarian independence that the world has been most actively interested. Ever since the sixth century, when the Hunnish tribe from the Volga (the Volgarians, or Bulgarians) settled in the region which is now the country of "Czar" Ferdinand and assumed Slavonic language and customs, becoming, in fact, virtually a Slavonic people, Bulgaria has been one of the most fiercely contested sections of the Balkan battlefield. The genesis of autonomous Bulgaria, the character of its ruler, and the problems that face him are set forth on another page this month by Mr. Alfred Stead, who is at present Roumanian Consul-General in London, and whose knowledge of Balkan conditions is thorough and unusual in a man of western nationality. It has been realized by the governments of Europe that ever since the treaty of Berlin fixed the status of the principality as subject to Turkish rule, requiring it to pay an annual tribute, such a sturdy, independent, democratic, and warlike people as the Bulgarians would submit to these conditions only so long as they felt unable to change them. For thirty years Bulgaria has been patiently and unswervingly working and hoping for the moment which came last month, when she felt herself strong enough to throw off the suzerainty of the hated Turk.

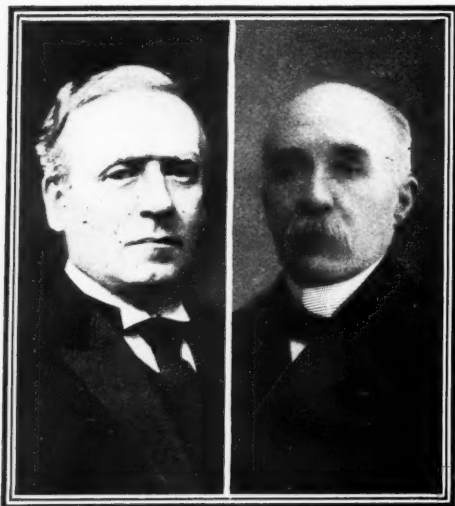
*Splendid  
Growth of  
Bulgaria.*

The tribute imposed by the treaty of Berlin Bulgaria never paid. Although dominated alternately by Austria and Russia, and made a plaything of the international rivalry of the continent, she has developed herself economically and in a military sense, has constantly stretched the



THE GERMAN KAISER AS HE LOOKED LAST MONTH.  
(Europe generally regards him as the power behind the scenes in the Balkan crisis.)

Berlin mandate, and waxed prosperous and powerful. In 1885 Serbia was defeated and virtually all of Eastern Rumelia incorporated with Bulgaria, the annexed province, however, continuing to render tribute to Turkey. Bulgaria insists that even in the face of combined Europe she will maintain her independent sovereignty. The importance of her position as key to the Balkan situation is emphasized by the fact that pending the agreement of the great powers no nation (we are writing in the middle of October) has yet recognized Bulgaria's new status. That the uncertainty of her foreign relations is causing her trouble is shown by the popular impatience as reflected in the Bulgarian press and by the reluctance of the government to impose new taxes, which will be absolutely necessary for the maintenance on a war footing of all the nation's military forces, the settlement of the Rumelian tribute, and the financial compensation which the powers will almost certainly compel her to make to Turkey. Meanwhile, payment of the Eastern Rumelian tribute has been stopped. The Bulgarian court and army were moved into this province, and from its capital, Philippopolis, Ferdinand has been watching Turkey.



Herbert Henry Asquith,  
Premier of Great Britain.

Georges Clémenceau,  
Premier of France.



Count Isvolski,  
Russian Foreign Minister.

Prince Bernard von Bülow,  
German Chancellor.

THE BRITISH, FRENCH, RUSSIAN, AND GERMAN STATESMEN WHO ARE DIRECTING THE "HIGHER POLITICS" IN THE BALKAN CRISIS.

*Will Ferdinand Attack Turkey?* In the official statement of Bulgaria's position issued by her Minister of Foreign Affairs, Poprikov, the world was informed:

Bulgaria has no aggressive aims. She has given regular form to a situation that already existed *de facto*. We believe that the powers will approve the proclamation of Bulgaria to be an independent kingdom. This act need in no way trouble the peace of Europe or of the Balkan countries.

The real element of danger on the Bulgarian side lies in the excitement of a people possessed of a magnificent army and tempted to make use of it by a state of things across an imaginary frontier. As we go to press the newspapers are reporting constant clashes between Bulgarian and Turkish patrols. Much of Ferdinand's splendid army is close to the border, whence it can easily see into Macedonia, which the Bulgarians have long referred to as their "promised land." One report had it that a Bulgarian attack on Turkey was prevented only by the openly made threat of a Russian invasion of King Ferdinand's domain.

*The Berlin Treaty Thirty Years After.* It has been well said that the treaty of Berlin showed much more regard for the interests of the powers that made it than for the national aspirations and even vital needs of those affected by it. Almost contemptuous of the

ambitions of the various Balkan states, this historic compact, imposed on Russia and Turkey by Bismarck's cynical ambition and Disraeli's challenge of the Muscovite empire, carefully provided for the commercial profit of the chief signatories, and ruthlessly suppressed the national desires of almost all the Balkan states. Russia, triumphant over Turkey after the war of 1878, with her victorious armies within a day's march of Constantinople, was held back by the fears and jealousies of combined Europe, and the treaty of San Stefano (March, 1878), which registered her triumph and would have made her rich and powerful in the Near East, was torn up by the diplomats of the rest of the Continent, who substituted for it the now famous treaty of Berlin, agreed upon in the German capital in July of the same year. Its general provisions as affecting the general European situation were:

The establishment of the independence of Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro; the creation of the province of Eastern Rumelia, "with administrative autonomy and a Christian governor, but under the control of Turkey"; a gradual extension of the Greek frontier (carried out in 1881); the mandate to Austria to occupy and administer the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which, however, were to remain nominally subject to Turkey; the cession by Turkey to Russia of valuable territory, including the cities of Kars and Batoum; the cession to Great Britain of control of the Island of Cyprus, nominally subject to Turkey but giv-

ing the British Empire virtual control of the Levant; the carrying out of certain legal reforms in Crete; the granting of full religious liberty to the Christian subjects of the Sultan, and finally, the "erection" of the principality of Bulgaria as an autonomous state tributary to the Porte, but with a Christian governor and a national militia. The three Turkish vilayets,—Kosovo (the greater part), Monastir (all), and Salonika (all),—known to the western world as Macedonia, which were occupied by the Russian troops during the war of 1878, were handed back to Turkey without reserve.

*What the  
Treaty Failed  
to Do.*

The Berlin treaty left Turkey in Europe about the size of the State of Missouri, mutilated and uncertain of her status, undoubtedly more dissatisfied than if the apparently harsher terms of the treaty of San Stefano had been permitted to remain. In most of the provisions of this highly artificial compromise Europe laid up for itself endless troubles and uncertainties which have disturbed almost every year of the past thirty. The anomalous status of the Bulgarians, a Slavonic people, permitted to choose a Christian governor but pay tribute to the Ottoman Sultan; the economic administrative control by Austria of the two provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, inhabited largely by a Slavonic race, but nominally subject to Turkey, and the highly inflammable character of the racial and religious mixture in Macedonia,—these conditions could not be expected to remain permanently as the Berlin treaty provided.

*The  
Expected  
Happened.*

Indeed, they were not expected so to remain, and the assertion of Bulgarian independence and the incorporation of Bosnia and Herzegovina with Austria-Hungary were the inevitable outcome of the Berlin compromise, inevitable just so soon as there should be the least weakening of the murderous and sickening despotism of Abdul Hamid. Bulgaria could not be expected to keep a compact to which she was not a party. As for the perfidious "treaty breaking" of Austria, the fact seems to be forgotten,—but a fact, nevertheless, it is,—that almost every provision of the Berlin treaty had been openly and cynically broken by almost every one of the signers years before Austria "annexed" the two provinces. In 1880 Montenegro got Dulcigno. The next year Greece forced the Porte to cede large sections of Thessaly and Epirus. In the same year Roumania became a kingdom instead of a principality, and Servia followed suit. Four years later Eastern Rumelia revolted and Bulgaria calmly

annexed it. A decade later the Turk took his turn at violating by massacring the Armenians. All of these developments were in direct violation of the Berlin compact. Why, then, insist so strenuously upon observing the letter of the treaty now?



THE AUSTRIAN AND ITALIAN FOREIGN MINISTERS  
IN CONFERENCE.

(Baron von Aehrenthal, Austrian foreign minister,—on the right,—and Signor Tittoni, head of the foreign office of Italy, in friendly conference at the Italian statesman's villa near Rome.)

*The  
Effect  
in Turkey*

Signs have not been wanting that the substitution of a liberal régime at Constantinople for the old barbarous autocracy was not acceptable to all the powers of Europe, and it has been confidently asserted that all the developments of the past few weeks have been merely part of a great conspiracy engineered from several European capitals, particularly Berlin, to discredit the administration of the Young Turks. It is impossible to withhold a certain admiration from the new Turkish administration and to hope that the present government will not be in any way overthrown, nor its existing liberal tendencies curbed. Already a decided impetus has been given to trade under the new administration, new financial enterprises have been formed, agriculture has taken a new start; and the business interests that formerly dreaded the government are now looking to it as their protector.



*What Will  
the Young  
Turks Do?*

The reform government at Constantinople, through the Grand Vizier, Kiamil Pasha, at once protested to the powers signatory to the treaty of Berlin against the action of Austria and Bulgaria. It is undoubtedly the desire of the Young Turkish party, which has so far maintained itself with great restraint and dignity, to avoid war. Turkey, however, is convinced that Austria, backed by Germany, encouraged Bulgaria to declare independence in order to compromise the new constitutional system. The government at Constantinople not only protested to the great powers not directly interested, but to Bulgaria and Austria and to Greece in the matter of the action taken by Crete. Although the warlike fervor of the Turks has been aroused to the highest pitch, the government has so far been careful to abstain from any overt act, the people contenting themselves with a vigorous and thorough boycott of Austrian products. The Porte's circular to the powers, complaining of Bulgaria's military activities says:

Not to give occasion for acts contrary to humanity, the Sublime Porte, while awaiting an equitable decision by the conference, declares that it will abstain from placing the imperial armies on a war footing.

*Austria Annexes  
Two  
Provinces.*

Following with dramatic swiftness upon the announcement of Bulgarian independence came the formal proclamation (October 6) and practical annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria-Hungary, with a pledge of a constitution guaranteeing civic rights and a representative assembly. The next day, in a rescript to Baron von Aehrenthal, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Emperor Francis Joseph said:

Being imbued with the unalterable conviction that the lofty, civilizing, and political objects for which the Austro-Hungarian monarchy undertook the occupation and administration of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the result which that administration has already obtained with costly sacrifices, can be permanently assured only by granting the constitutional institutions corresponding to their needs—institutions for the setting up of which the establishment of a clear and unequivocal legal position for the two provinces forms an indispensable condition,—I extend my sovereignty over Bosnia and Herzegovina and, at the same time, bring into force in those provinces the rules of succession applying to my house. As a demonstration of the peaceful purposes which have led me to this immutable decree, I at the same time order the evacuation of the Sanjak of Novi-bazar by the troops of my army stationed therein.

*The Proclamation  
to the  
People.*

At the same time a proclamation was issued to the inhabitants of the two provinces, the substance of which was as follows:

We deem that the moment has come to give the inhabitants of the two lands new proof of our trust in their political maturity in order to raise Bosnia and Herzegovina to a higher level of political life. We are resolved to grant both lands constitutional institutions that will take account of prevailing conditions and general interests so as to create a legal basis for the representation of their wishes and needs. You shall henceforth have a voice when decisions are taken concerning affairs of your home, which, as hitherto, will have a separate administration. . . . The inhabitants will thus share in all the benefits which the lasting confirmation of the present connection can offer. The new order of things will pledge that civilization and welfare will find a sure place in your homes. Among the many cares that surround our throne the care of your material and spiritual well shall in the future not be the least. The exalted idea of equal rights for all before the law, a share in legislation and the administration of provincial affairs, equal protection for all religious creeds, for languages and racial idiosyncrasies, all these high possessions shall you enjoy. Freedom of the individual and the welfare of the whole will be the lodestar of our government in the two lands.

The Turkish flag was then lowered from the public buildings and the banner of Austria-Hungary raised, and the military immediately and quietly required to take the oath of allegiance to the Dual Monarchy. So thorough and effective has been Austria-Hungary's administration and assimilation of these two provinces since 1878 that this mere formal change of allegiance was really the only ceremony necessary for the organic union of the provinces with the empire itself.

*Was it  
Treaty  
Breaking?*

Despite the facts, already noted, that almost every provision of the Berlin treaty had already been broken openly and cynically by other powers, that the new act of Austria-Hungary changes nothing except the name of her relations to these provinces, and that in his autograph letters to the governors of the different European nations the Austrian Emperor had announced his intention of doing just this very thing, Austria's action occasioned a storm of protest, and was denounced in the press of almost all Europe, except that of Germany and Bulgaria, as well as largely in the American press, as being a perfidious violation of sacred obligations imposed by treaty. Indeed, it is the action of Austria in the Bosnia-Herzegovina matter, rather than Bulgaria's



coup or the action of Crete, that has precipitated the chain of events which at this writing is rapidly dividing the great powers of Europe into two opposing camps.

*The Austrian Point of View.*

It is generally held that since Austria's administration and control of the provinces were so completely beyond dispute she could have no valid reason for a more formal title; and, it is further contended, the peace-loving Francis Joseph in the last years of his long reign would certainly not have moved in this matter wholly of his own accord. Whatever foreign influence may have been exerted, however, there can be no doubt that the Austro-Hungarian monarchy is a unit on the question. The reception given the address of the Emperor-King by the Delegations at Budapest on the opening of the imperial Parliament on October 8 was proof of this. In reply to all suggestions and protests, Austria has declined to reconsider her action in completing the annexation of the two provinces, has announced her intention of refusing to enter any international conference that will not regard such annexation as a *fait accompli*, and sets forth her viewpoint in these highly significant words of the Emperor-King:

The powers, animated entirely by peaceful intentions, are endeavoring in mutual understanding to mitigate and remove the difficulties from which the European situation is not yet free. Thanks to our alliance with Germany and Italy and our friendly relations with the other powers Austria-Hungary is in a position to co-operate prominently in the maintenance of peace. The monarchy can only perform this task efficiently if it is powerful and well armed; it is a task commensurate with its traditions and its position in Europe.

Baron von Aerenthal denies that the annexation is an infraction of the Berlin treaty, declaring it to be a development of the treaty "which was foreseen when the convention was framed, and which in no way justifies the convocation of a European congress." He points, further, to Austria's peaceful and friendly intentions toward Turkey, emphasizing the Emperor's announcement that Austrian troops will evacuate the province of Novibazar, occupied by the forces of the Dual Monarchy since 1879.

*Crete Proclaims Herself Greek.*

Before Europe had a chance to recover from its astonishment over the Austrian and Bulgarian coups the dispatches told us that the inhabitants of the island of Crete, with great enthusiasm and military ceremonies, had



KIAMIL PASHA, THE TURKISH GRAND VIZIER.

(The premier of the Young Turk administration is a man in his seventieth year, but full of vigor and liberal to the core.)

thrown off their allegiance to Turkey, and proclaimed themselves subjects of Greece. This act was formally confirmed a week later (on October 14) by a vote in their national Assembly, and a committee was appointed to govern the island provisionally in the name of the King of Greece and in conformity with Greek laws, until such time as the union could be actually consummated. Crete, it will be remembered, has been for years an international danger spot. This island in the Mediterranean has a population overwhelmingly Greek, and has been for 250 years under the actual or nominal rule of Turkey. In 1898, after more than seventy years of almost continuous insurrection against Turkey, the nations of Europe intervened and constituted the island an autonomous state under a High Commissioner of the powers, nominally subject to Turkey, but paying no tribute. For the past two years the King of Greece has exercised the right of proposing the name of the High Commissioner, his choice being invariably recognized by the four protecting powers (Great Britain, France, Russia, and Italy). The present High Commissioner is Alexander A. Zaimis, formerly Prime Minister of Greece.

*The Powers  
Compel  
Deliberation.*

Turkey, of course, protested at once against the action of the Cretans, and while their incorporation with Greece has long been a cherished ambition of their motherland, the Athens government correctly and cautiously declined to formally recognize the transfer of sovereignty until the protecting powers should agree. Speaking for the four, Great Britain promptly notified Greece that until affairs in the island are restored to their legal status the protecting powers cannot promise anything in relation to Cretan aspirations, which must be considered at a general European conference. Greece's stake in the Balkan "muddle" is, however, more than the fate of Crete. The relation of the Greek Government and the Greek people to the religious and political problems in Macedonia and to the so-called exarchate or national churches of Bulgaria and Serbia are complicated, and may yet involve the little Hellenic kingdom in the general problem.

*The Stake  
of Serbia and  
Montenegro.*

It has been the dream of the Balkan Slavs, consistently encouraged by Russia, for three centuries and more, to unite all their brethren in one empire, which should revive the glories of the Servian-Bulgarian federation of the Middle Ages. It was the revolt of Bosnia and Herzegovina against the Sultan which brought on the Turko-Russian war of 1878 and Austria-Hungary's formal absorption of these two provinces, the majority of whose inhabitants are Serbs of the same general Turk-hating race as the people of Serbia and Montenegro, not only put an end to this Servian ambition but made the Servian people fear for their own future as an independent state. Ever since Bismarck's time, and it is believed in accordance with the great German statesman's ideas in framing the Berlin treaty, Austria's sovereignty has been pushed southward and eastward. The two newly incorporated provinces have been regarded for the past thirty years as "the German gates to the Orient."

*Is Serbia's  
Independence  
in Danger?*

A glance at the map will show how to the eyes of patriotic Servians and Montenegrins the advance of the Austrian Teuton to the south and west by absorbing their compatriots is a real peril to them. Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Servian premier recently remarked, are to Serbia, what Korea was to Japan before the war with Russia. Serbia's fate, said the Rou-

manian Foreign Minister, when the annexation was announced, is already sealed. "It is merely a question whether the Servians prefer to perish like heroes in war or like mice in a trap." At the Berlin Congress Count Andrassy, the leading Austro-Hungarian representative, announced that his country would not brook the creation of any new Slav states in the Balkans, that she would never permit Serbia and Montenegro to strengthen themselves at the expense of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and that she would at the earliest possible opportunity "penetrate by means of railways and trade extension to the Egean Sea."

*Anti-Austrian  
Feeling in  
Serbia.*

Since that time the Dual Monarchy as been gradually transformed into a Slav state. Out of its 45,000,000 population to-day more than 22,000,000 are Slavonic, and the remainder (German, Magyar, and Latin) are so hostile one to the other that the Slav dominates. The absorption of Serbia and the other Balkan Slavs would be only hastening the day when Austria, instead of Russia, would be recognized by the world as the protectress of the Slavonic peoples. But Austria is as yet dominated by Berlin, and therefore hateful to true Slavs. The relations between Austria-Hungary and Serbia have never been cordial, and during the past few years tariff wars and boycotts have marked the intercourse of the two peoples. In view of these facts, the student of Balkan politics was not surprised at the anti-Austrian feeling aroused in Serbia to a pitch of fury upon the announcement of the annexation of the two provinces. The Belgrade government at once sent a vigorous protest to Vienna and to the other European capitals, and for several days an anti-Austrian war by Serbia seemed inevitable.

*Where  
Italy's  
Interests Are.*

Prince Nicholas of Montenegro issued a proclamation (October 7) making common cause with Serbia and announcing that, in view of Austria-Hungary's violation of the Treaty of Berlin, Montenegro would no longer feel herself bound by the clause limiting her maritime rights. Many warlike speeches were made by the Crown Princes of both Serbia and Montenegro, and in each case the Skupstina, or national parliament, voted confidence in whatever might be done by the ministry. Troops were mobilized and some anti-Austrian rioting took place. The counsels of

cooler heads prevailed, however,—particularly when it became known that Germany and Austria had intercepted the supply of Servian ammunition which had been ordered from France. The news of unrest and a reported intention to declare independence in Albania,—Turkey's polyglot, unruly region on the Adriatic,—brought Italy actively into the problem. The autonomy of Albania is guaranteed by Austria-Hungary and Italy in case the *status quo* in Turkey is ever disturbed. The Italian kingdom has for years looked longingly at the excellent soil and fine climate of the woefully governed Turkish province which lies directly opposite its eastern coast. Furthermore, the Italian Queen is a daughter of the Prince of Montenegro. Italy has interests also in Dalmatia, the Austro-Hungarian province which runs along the Adriatic, cutting off Montenegro from the sea, and many other scores to settle with Austria before the mastery of the Adriatic shall be determined.

*Essence of the  
Balkan  
Question.*

Stated in its broad, general lines, the Balkan or Near Eastern, question is threefold. The first phase is that of a race war, the "triangular duel" between Teuton, Slav, and Turk. This "*Drang nach Osten*" of the Teuton, the ever westward march of the Slav, and the slow retreat of the Ottoman from Europe are complicated by Latin influences persisting in Roumania from old Roman times and reaching out from the young Italian nation, and by the efforts of Greek religion and nationality to again dominate in Macedonia. The second factor is that of state-making. It consists of the aspirations of the various small Slav nationalities either for autonomy, for independent sovereignty, or for union into a great pan-Balkan empire. The third factor is the *weltpolitik* of Europe, the jealousy and rivalry of the great powers. For four centuries and a half, ever since the conquering Turk crossed the Bosphorus and took Constantinople, the grim contest has gone on to dislodge him by war and diplomacy. In both these up to the present time the Turk has generally proved himself the equal, if not the superior, of the so-called Christian powers. On another page (593) this month we present a graphic series of character sketches of men who count in the Balkans in this Turk-expelling warfare by a journalist and ex-United States Consul in that troubled region to which we commend attention.

*The Steady  
Retreat of the  
Turk.*

The expulsion of the followers of Mohammed from the European continent has been so steadily, unceasingly, and unanimously sought by Europe through these four and a half centuries that it is difficult to hear with patience the solemn prating of the "close constructionists" of treaties, who demand the territorial integrity of Turkey and the Porte's right to lands long since shorn from it, no more part of the Sultan's empire than Cuba is part of Spain and under his suzerainty only by a diplomatic figment recorded nowhere except in the reference books and in the solemn phraseology of diplomatic notes. The Turk himself has not been deceived. He knows that what seemed to be a radical change in the map of Europe during the first week of October was after all only a paper change. He has not to-day one square foot less of territory than before Bulgaria asserted her independence and Austria formally extended her official sovereignty over Bosnia and Herzegovina. It is simply a case of calling things by their real names. The Turk has never administered any province inhabited by an alien race with decent government. It has always been a case of the exaction of a brutal conqueror's tribute, a "hold up." He knows he has remained in Europe only as a conqueror depending on his military arm. For two centuries Europe has been elbowing him out of the continent. For more than a century this regular evolution has been going on while the Turk has been slowly expelled from Europe: his territory has been carved into, first, "spheres of influence," then provinces under "suzerainty," then "autonomous principalities," then independent sovereign states. The Turk understands. What will he do in this new crisis in his history?

*What  
Will the  
Powers Do?*

The Near Eastern question is first of all a European problem. The crisis precipitated by the actions of Bulgaria and Austria-Hungary during the early days of last month was less than twenty-four hours old when it had become a full-grown continental problem involving, besides the principals, every great European power. Indeed, the question has become a tremendous diplomatic duel between two great European groups: Great Britain, France, and Russia on the one side, and the Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria, and Italy) on the other, with the fate of Turkey and the various Balkan nations as the stake. Before any formal reply had been

sent to the autograph letters of the Austrian Kaiser or any foreign office had officially acknowledged the changed status in the Balkans, Sir Edward Grey, British Foreign Minister, announced the attitude of Great Britain to Bulgaria, Austria, Turkey, and the other powers in these words:

His Majesty's government cannot admit the right of any power to alter an international treaty without the consent of the other parties to it, and it therefore refuses to sanction any infraction of the Berlin treaty and declines to recognize what has been done until the views of the other powers are known, especially those of Turkey, which is more directly concerned than any one else.

*Great Britain  
Acts  
at Once.*

He followed this up by energetic action in dispatching a naval squadron to the mouth of the Dardanelles. This action on the part of Great Britain instantly and effectively shifted the crux of the situation from the Balkans themselves to the council chambers of the great European powers. The Turkish and Bulgarian governments at once issued their declarations of intention to maintain the peace; Austria-Hungary conceded that, while

she would not discuss the fact of her annexation of the two provinces, she was not averse to considering the proposition of compensation to Turkey; Greece decided to wait before formally acknowledging the extension of her sovereignty to Crete; and a series of pourparlers and diplomatic notes began between the foreign offices of Great Britain, France, and Russia with the object of summoning at an early date a general European conference to consider the actions of Bulgaria and Austria. The negotiations were conducted mainly at the initiative of Premier Clémenceau of France, speaking through the Foreign Minister, M. Pichon, the republic being the most disinterested of the great powers. For several days the British Premier Asquith and Sir Edward Grey, alternately representing Britain foreign policy in discussions at London with the Russian Foreign Minister, Count Isvolski, declined to agree to any reopening of the general Balkan question, insisting upon a limitation of the discussion before a general conference to the Bulgarian, Austrian, and Cretan actions.

*Suggested Program for a New Congress.*

Finally a program for a conference was tentatively agreed upon by France, Great Britain, and Russia to be offered for the approval of the other signatories to the Berlin treaty. The terms of this agreement were prematurely given to the world on October 14. Although official denials of the correctness of the published terms have come from both the French and British foreign offices, their accuracy has been attested by more than one reliable authority. Furthermore, as they actually represent the point of view of the three interested powers as known to the world, and would, in all probability, form the basis for discussion in a general conference, it is worth while giving the substance of them here. The proposals, which are eight in number, are in substance as follows:

The First is to the effect that those articles of the treaty of Berlin which relate to Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia shall be replaced by stipulations recognizing the independence of Bulgaria, as at present constituted, and determining the financial obligations of Bulgaria toward Turkey. New clauses probably will settle also the question of the Oriental Railway. The Second and Third proposals are that the powers shall "take note" of the annexation by Austria-Hungary of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the return of the Sanjak of Novibazar to Turkey. The Fourth article relates to Crete. It replaces the article of the treaty by clauses recognizing the annexation of Crete to Greece, and determining the financial obligations of Greece in respect to



HAS THE KAISER BEEN ISOLATED AGAIN?

PEACE (to Emperor William): "Everybody else seems to be my friend; why do you stand aloof?"

THE KAISER: "But haven't I always said that I was your friend?"

PEACE: "Yes; but can't you do something to prove it?"

From *Punch* (London).



Crete toward Turkey. It is understood that the four powers under whose protection Crete has been (Russia, Great Britain, France, and Italy) will settle the Cretan question in concert with Turkey before referring it to the conference. The Fifth proposal is to the effect that arrangements similar to the above shall apply to the Armenian provinces of Turkey. The Sixth article deals with Montenegro. The Montenegrin rights of sovereignty are limited by the treaty of Berlin. It is proposed that all these restrictions shall be abrogated. The Seventh point in the program originally contained the statement that "it is desirable to seek and give compensation to Serbia and Montenegro by a rectification of the Bosnian and Herzegovinian frontiers joining Novibazar." This was taken to imply that a strip would be taken from the territory annexed by Austria-Hungary. At a final meeting held between Sir Edward Grey and M. Isvolski the Seventh proposal was altered into a simple affirmation of the "desirability" of giving compensation to Serbia and Montenegro, but without specifying the means. The Eighth proposal concerns the River Danube and declares that it is desirable to revise the regulations governing the Danube traffic so as to give larger rights to the states bordering on the river.

The eight articles of the program are followed by a declaration that, as the new Ottoman constitution foreshadows a reorganization of the judicial system and a remodeling of Turkish legislation in conformity with the principles of other European states, the powers are prepared to consider in concert with Turkey, so soon as these reforms are realized, the best means of doing away with the capitulations. It is declared also that this occasion could be taken to consider the abolition of the postoffices now maintained by foreign powers in Turkey.

The first results of the agreement upon this basis for discussion to become evident to the world were the increased popularity of the British Liberal government at home, as attested in several bye-elections; the determination of the Asquith ministry to "definitely abandon" its policy of a reduction of armaments, and the drawing together of Great Britain and Russia, until it was confidently asserted in the press dispatches that the Anglo-Russian understanding has now become an *entente* as *cordiale* as the agreement at present existing between France and England.

What Is  
the German  
Program?

Meanwhile the various protests of Turkey to Bulgaria, to Austria, and to the other powers had been made and the first reply to the autograph letter of Emperor Francis Joseph had come from Berlin. This, it is understood, was an unqualified approval by Germany of Austria's action and an assurance of the former's intention to support the Dual Monarchy in case of "serious eventualities" (we

are quoting the words of the semi-official *North German Gazette*). Although the French Foreign Office had kept Berlin informed of the progress of the negotiations between the republic, Russia, and Great Britain, the other two parties to the new group of three had not communicated with the German capital, and Kaiser Wilhelm, evidently regarding this as a slight, almost immediately, and despite the denial of the authenticity of the published program for a conference, announced through Chancellor von Bülow that Germany could not agree upon any such basis for reconsidering the Berlin treaty. Can Germany hold her allies together in the face of the new Dreibund,—England, France, and Russia,—which is more powerful, probably, than any other international combination ever created? Or is power actually drifting from the Kaiser's grasp? The possibility of this was strongly suggested on October 19, when the British Foreign Office was notified that Italy, one of Germany's allies, adhered to the draft of the program for the international congress made public the week before. Meanwhile, Turkey awaits the decision of the powers, realizing perfectly well that the best she can expect is a legalization of the latest curtailing of her power, with "compensation" in the form of money payments (indeed, the *London Financial News* announced on October 16 "on high authority" that this compensation to Turkey would take the form of a loan of \$250,000,000 guaranteed by the powers), and understanding also that she will be fortunate if the projected European congress does not further despoil her.

Japan's Great  
Welcome to  
the Fleet.

After a warm welcome at Manila, the cordiality of which was not lessened by the cholera scare in the Philippine capital (although none but the officers was permitted to go ashore), and some very rough handling by a typhoon on the passage between the Philippines and the Japanese coast, the American battleship fleet sailed into Yokohama harbor early on the morning of October 18. The Japanese imperial and local authorities had prepared a rousing welcome for the American ships and sailors. The great Japanese port had a population twice its normal size, many thousands of visitors having come from all over the empire to be present at the arrival of the Americans. The Japanese Admiralty had prepared for its visitors the unusual honor of a "consort escort,"—that is to say,

each American warship was escorted into Yokohama harbor by a Japanese vessel of the same class. Rear-Admiral Sperry and his officers and men were fêted and entertained and made the mark of many unusual honors. The Japanese authorities and people were undoubtedly desirous of showing the sincerity of their pleasure at seeing the ships of what Marquis Matsukata calls "our very best friends on earth." One of the most impressive features of the entertainment was the assembling of 10,000 Japanese school children, in one of the Tokio parks, and who sang "Hail Columbia" in English. An audience with the Emperor and a grand state lunch to the American Admiral and his officers completed the program of entertainment.

*Sincerity  
of the  
Welcome.*

Upon landing at Yokohama Admiral Sperry, who bore a friendly message to the Mikado from President Roosevelt, was handed a set of telegrams of welcome from all the prominent Japanese statesmen, public officials, and many other prominent citizens. The words of Count Okuma, who has been so often reported as being anti-American in his feelings, will serve to show the general tenor of these messages. Count Okuma said: "We welcome the American fleet with our whole heart. We people of Japan remember with the most profound gratitude the help and guidance of America." After a week spent in Japanese waters the fleet left for China. From there it goes to Manila and thence through the Indian Ocean, arriving at Suez on January 5. Gibraltar, it is expected, will be reached on February 3, and the ships will proceed then direct to the United States, being due to arrive at Hampton Roads on February 22. The sincerity of the welcome to the American fleet and the pleasure of the Japanese at pleasing their American friends have had an effect on the stock market in Tokio, which, the news dispatches tell us, was stronger during the first week in October than it has been for two years. In an imperial rescript addressed to the people on October 14 the Mikado exhorted the nation to recognize the fact that "the welfare of the Orient and of the Occident is interdependent," and emphasized the need for cultivating international friendships. Such a reference at the time of the visit of the American fleet has a significance worth bringing to the notice of all our good friends who have been so busy for months past prophesy-

ing an American-Japanese war. The Mikado's reply to President Roosevelt's message was most cordial, and bore the marks of sincerity and friendliness.

*The General  
Election  
in Canada.*

The overshadowing political event of last month in Canada was the dissolution of the federal Parliament early in the month and the general election, which was held on October 26. The Parliament just dissolved was the tenth since confederation, the fourth that has supported a Liberal administration, and the third that has victoriously returned Sir Wilfrid Laurier to power. The last House of Commons, elected in November, 1904, contained 214 members. The House elected last month will contain 221, the increase representing the growth of population in the western provinces. Sir Wilfrid Laurier conducted his campaign on the issue, "Let the Liberals finish the big work they have begun for a big Canada." The Conservative opposition, charging the Liberal administration with corruption in administration, in appointments to public office, in manipulation of lands, in the use of public money, and in the abuse of electoral power in the constituencies, looked forward confidently to a large reduction in the Laurier majority, if not to a victory. Before this issue of the magazine reaches its readers the result will be known. As in our own present general election, the issue in the Dominion was largely one of men rather than policies, and, whether actually victorious or not, Sir Wilfrid Laurier's commanding and attractive personality will always remain one of the most impressive in the political history of our neighbor to the north. It should be noted in passing that the long-drawn-out strike on the Canadian Pacific Railroad has at last been settled, the result being a victory for the company. It will also interest Americans to know that, last month, new lieutenant-governors were appointed to the provinces of Ontario and Quebec. In Ontario Sir William Mortimer Clark, appointed in April, 1903, retired, and was succeeded by the Hon. J. M. Gibson, for many years a member of the Legislature as well as a member of three different Conservative federal ministries. In Quebec Sir Louis A. Jetté, lieutenant-governor since February, 1898, retired to take a place on the bench of the province judiciary, and was succeeded by Sir C. A. P. Pelletier, who from 1896 to 1900 was Speaker of the Canadian Senate.

# RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From September 21 to October 20, 1908.)

## POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

September 21.—President Roosevelt issues a statement in regard to Senator Foraker's relations to the Standard Oil Company.

September 22.—Direct primaries are held for the first time in New Jersey; Everett Colby, heading the "New Idea" movement, wins the Republican nomination for Senator from Essex County by a plurality of 1605.

September 23.—President Roosevelt, replying to Mr. Bryan, makes a statement regarding Governor Haskell's relations with the Standard Oil Company in Oklahoma. . . . Mr. Taft starts on his Western speech-making tour. . . . The followers of Senator Stephenson obtain control of the Republican organization in Wisconsin.

September 24.—The New York State Convention of the Independence party nominates Clarence J. Shearn for Governor.

September 25.—Governor Charles N. Haskell, of Oklahoma, resigns his position as treasurer of the Democratic National Committee. Senator Foraker (Rep.), of Ohio, issues a statement denying the charges made against him in connection with the Standard Oil Company, and bitterly criticises President Roosevelt and Mr. Taft. . . . New Hampshire Democrats nominate Judge George H. Bingham for Governor. . . . Gen. T. Coleman Du Pont, chairman of the Speakers' Bureau of the Republican National Committee, sends in his resignation.

September 26.—The Indiana Legislature passes the County Local Option bill. . . . Herman Ridder, of New York, is appointed treasurer of the Democratic National Committee, to succeed Governor Haskell, of Oklahoma, resigned.

September 30.—Mr. Taft speaks to large audiences at Lincoln, Neb., the home of William J. Bryan.

October 1.—Massachusetts Democrats nominate James H. Vahey for Governor.

October 2.—Judge George H. Bingham refuses the nomination for Governor made by the New Hampshire Democrats.

October 3.—Massachusetts Republicans nominate Eben S. Draper for Governor.

October 6.—Rhode Island Democrats nominate Olney Arnold for Governor.

October 7.—Joseph M. Brown (Dem.) is elected Governor of Georgia by a majority of from 80,000 to 90,000; the disfranchisement amendment to the constitution is ratified.

October 8.—George H. Prouty (Rep.) is inaugurated as Governor of Vermont.

October 9.—Dr. J. B. Bradley withdraws from the governorship primary recount in Michigan, leaving the board of State canvassers free to certify the nomination of Governor Warner (Rep.). . . . The Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City reports to Mayor McClellan

that the city has expended \$70,000,000 practically unaudited.

October 12.—The United States Supreme Court meets for the fall term.

October 14.—Rhode Island Republicans nominate Aram J. Pothier for Governor.

October 15.—The list of contributors to the Bryan campaign fund is made public, showing that over \$248,000 has been given.

October 20.—The Vermont Legislature re-elects United States Senator William P. Dillingham (Rep.) and elects ex-Gov. Carroll S. Page (Rep.) for the short term.

## POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

September 24.—Señor Augusto B. Leguia is inaugurated President of Peru (see page 572) . . . . A summary of the political program of the Young Turks is published in Constantinople.

September 27.—A demonstration against the Licensing bill before the British Parliament takes place in London.

September 28.—Lord Tweedmouth resigns his post as Lord President of the Council in Great Britain.

September 29.—The new Defense bill for Australia is introduced into the federal Parliament; it provides for compulsory service.

September 30.—The Russian war budget for 1909, submitted to the Duma, carries an increase of \$20,000,000 to raise salaries of officers and improve rations.

October 2.—The Shah of Persia excludes Tabriz from representation in the national Parliament as a penalty for insurrection.

October 5.—Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria declares at Tirnova the independence of the principality.

October 11.—A new Danish cabinet is formed, with M. Neergaard as Premier and Minister for Defense.

October 12.—Ferdinand, Czar of Bulgaria, is warmly greeted by the people of Sofia. . . . British and Dutch delegates from South African colonies meet at Durban, to draft a constitution uniting all the states. . . . The autumn session of the British Parliament is opened.

October 17.—Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Premier of Canada, in asking support at Montreal in the coming election, states that this will be his last campaign.

October 18.—Martial law is declared in the Turkish provinces of Asia Minor, owing to reactionary agitation.

October 19.—M. Thomson, the French Minister of Marine, resigns after the Chamber of Deputies has passed a resolution deploring the negligence in his department. . . . Nominations are made by both the Liberal and Conservative parties in practically all the constituencies of Canada. . . . An edict of the Chinese Government

announces the abandonment of the opium monopoly.

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

September 22.—Germany replies in a conciliatory spirit to the Franco-Spanish note on Morocco, but declares that no special privileges to any country can be recognized....Chinese at Canton threaten to boycott French firms be-

the German consulate over the arrest of deserters.

September 28.—Great Britain, Germany, and Austria inform the Bulgarian Government that its occupation of a section of the Oriental Railway is unjustifiable; Bulgaria declares that the restoration of the railway to Turkish control is impossible.

October 2.—President Penna signs the general treaty of arbitration between Brazil and Argentina.

October 5.—France, England, and Russia agree on united action to prevent war between Turkey and Bulgaria.

October 7.—The popular assembly at Canea proclaims the union of Crete with Greece; a decree is issued stating that henceforth Cretan affairs will be conducted in the name of the Hellenic government....Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria issues a proclamation announcing Austro-Hungarian rights of sovereignty and succession over the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina....Great Britain opposes a conference of powers to discuss the revision of the Berlin treaty.

October 8.—The German Foreign Office at Berlin denies responsibility for the situation in the Balkans....An arbitration treaty between the United States and China is signed at Washington.

October 9.—Crowds in Belgrade threaten to force King Peter of Serbia to abdicate unless he declares war on Austria....The Russian Foreign Minister arrives in London for a conference with Sir Edward Grey.

October 10.—A popular movement to boycott Austrian, Bulgarian, and German products is started in Constantinople.

October 12.—The National Assembly of Serbia adopts a resolution supporting the government; the Montenegrin Assembly votes a credit of \$3,200,000 to the ministry of war....Germany and Italy inform Turkey that they oppose the infraction of the treaty of Berlin without the consent of the powers....The Cretan Parliament votes a union with Greece.

October 14.—Austria presents a formal protest to the Porte on the subject of the boycott against the Austrian Lloyd vessels....The Mexican Foreign Office confirms the resignation of Ambassador Creel.

October 15.—Great Britain, France, and Russia reach an agreement on the proposals to be submitted to the other powers as a basis for discussion at the coming conference on the Balkan situation....Strained relations between China and Japan result from an engagement between Chinese and Japanese troops in Korea.

October 16.—The Bulgarian cabinet decides to refuse to pay an indemnity to Turkey for Bulgaria's independence, but is willing to negotiate for the purchase of the Bulgarian section of the Oriental Railway.

October 17.—It is announced that Bulgaria has offered to disband her reserves if Great Britain and Germany will guarantee that Turkey will make no hostile move.

October 19.—Austria opens direct negotiations with Turkey regarding the annexation of



HIS HOLINESS JOACHIM III., PATRIARCH OF THE EAST.

(Spiritual and temporal head of the Orthodox Greek Church; more powerful than any of the Balkan rulers. See page 597.)

cause of the consul's refusal to permit the arrest of alleged pirates on a French steamer.

September 25.—Turkey appeals to the powers against the continued occupation of the Eastern Rumelian section of the Oriental Railway by Bulgarian troops....The German Minister at Caracas attempts to present Holland's second note to Venezuela; President Castro refuses to receive the note.

September 26.—Trouble occurs at Casablanca between French officials and representatives of





MISCHA ELMAN.

(The young Russian violinist who is about to visit America. See page 560.)

Bosnia and Herzegovina....The American State Department brings the matter of the expulsion of the Rev. Dr. Stover, a missionary, from Portuguese West Africa to the attention of the Portuguese Government.

October 20.—Unusual honors are shown to the officers of the American fleet by the Emperor and Empress of Japan, messages of good will being exchanged between the Emperor and President Roosevelt.

#### OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

September 21.—As the result of a lockout of cotton operators in Lancashire, England, 130,000 people are idle and 400 mills closed....A telephone fire in Paris destroys all communication on the right bank of the Seine....Wilbur Wright, in an aeroplane flight near Le Mans, France, remains in the air one hour thirty-one minutes and fifty-one seconds, covering nearly sixty-one miles....Chelsea, Mass., sustains a fire loss of \$400,000.

September 22.—The Celtic Reunion is opened at Brest, in France....Thirteen men are killed and many injured by a turret explosion on board the French cruiser *Latouche-Tréville* at Toulon....A state of siege is proclaimed at Asuncion, Paraguay, because of a plot organized by members of the negro party....The International Fisheries Congress begins its sessions in Washington....The record for the year is made in the New York stock market, 1,490,000 shares being sold.

September 23.—A case of cholera is discovered at the Winter Palace, in St. Petersburg; a de-

crease in the number of cases is reported from Manila....A fresh outbreak of bubonic plague is reported at Caracas, Venezuela....Many cases of typhoid fever are reported in Montreal.

September 24.—Andrew Carnegie gives \$1,250,000 to found a hero fund in Scotland similar to the one established by him in the United States.

September 26.—In an elevated railway collision in Berlin, Germany, twenty persons are killed and nineteen seriously injured.

September 27.—Cholera is reported as decreasing in St. Petersburg....Twenty lives are lost in the wreck of the British ship *Loch Finlas* on the Tasmanian coast....The sesquicentennial celebration of the city of Pittsburg is opened.

September 28.—The International Tuberculosis Congress opens in Washington.

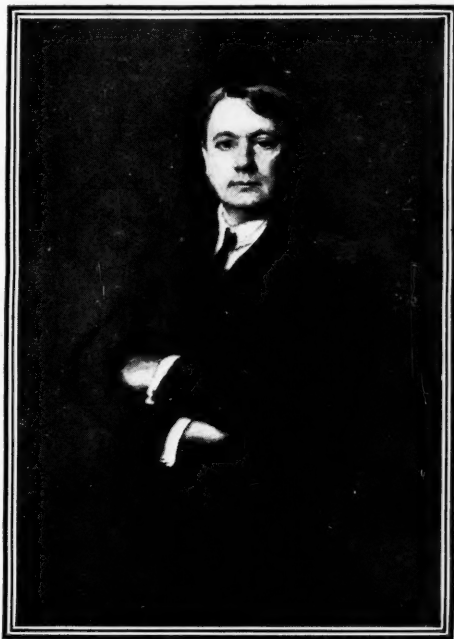
September 29.—Floods cause great loss of life in the Hyderabad and Deccan districts of India.

September 30.—The Irish University act becomes operative....A Turkish steamer sinks a ferryboat near Smyrna, causing a loss of 140 lives....The United States battleships *Alabama* and *Maine* arrive at Gibraltar.

October 1.—The two-cent postage rate between the United States and Great Britain and Ireland goes into effect.

October 2.—The American battleship fleet arrives at Manila.

October 3.—The International Congress on Tuberculosis, at Washington, adjourns after voting down Dr. Koch's theory that bovine



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LORD NORTHCLIFFE, NEW OWNER OF LONDON "TIMES."

(Alfred Harmsworth, the famous English newspaper proprietor, now in this country for the purpose of observing a national election.)

tuberculosis is not communicable to human beings.

October 4.—The settlement of the strike of workmen on the Canadian Pacific System under the Dominion law for settling labor disputes is announced; the men return to work unconditionally. . . . Philadelphia begins a week's celebration of the 225th anniversary of her founding.

October 6.—Wilbur Wright, with a passenger in his aeroplane, remains in the air one hour four minutes and twenty seconds, thus fulfilling the conditions of the \$100,000 contract with M. Weiller.

October 7.—Harry Augustus Garfield is inaugurated president of Williams College. . . . In the foundering of the French steamer *Juanita* on the Grand Banks twenty-five men are drowned. . . . The faculty of St. Petersburg University ignores the order of the government to reopen the university. . . . China plans a loan of £5,000,000 to be issued in London and Paris for the redemption of bonds of the Peking-Hankow Railroad. . . . Mr. Taft and Mr. Bryan meet at the dinner of the Chicago Association of Commerce. . . . A grain elevator owned by the Canadian Pacific and Boston & Maine Railroad companies explodes at Richford, Vt., killing thirteen persons and causing damage of \$400,000. . . . The hearings in the United States Government's suit against the coal roads under the anti-trust laws are resumed in New York.

October 8.—In the National League baseball championship game Chicago defeats New York by a score of 4 to 2.

October 10.—Wilbur Wright makes a new aeroplane record with a passenger at Le Mans, France, remaining in the air one hour nine minutes and forty-five seconds.

October 14.—John S. Kennedy, the New York banker and philanthropist, gives \$1,000,000 to the Presbyterian Hospital.

October 15.—An historical congress is opened in Sargossa, Spain. . . . Anthracite miners in Pennsylvania demand of the operators an entirely new agreement to replace the present one, which expires April 1, 1909. . . . The fortieth annual convention of the National American Woman's Suffrage Association opens at Buffalo, N. Y. . . . The American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions meets in Brooklyn, N. Y.

October 17.—The American battleship fleet is warmly welcomed at Yokohama, Japan.

October 18.—The cornerstone of a new \$2,000,000 Roman Catholic cathedral is laid in St. Louis.

#### OBITUARY.

September 19.—Dr. J. M. Marroquin, ex-President of Colombia.

September 21.—Very Rev. James Carmichael, Lord Bishop of Montreal. . . . Nicolas Salmeron, the Spanish Republican statesman.

September 22.—F. M. Howarth, a well-known comic illustrator, 43.

September 23.—Miss Hedwig Luszczevska (Deotyina), the famous Polish poet, 74.

September 24.—Sir Samuel Canning, eminent for deep-sea telegraphy, 85. . . . Dwight Church, the American art collector, 72.

September 25.—Prof. Ernest F. Fenellosa, a well-known educator and lecturer, 55. . . . James W. Paul, Jr., the Philadelphia financier, 57.

September 26.—Prof. Frank Parsons, of Boston University, author and lecturer, 54. . . . William Farren, the English actor, 83. . . . William Tallack, the English philanthropist, 77.

September 28.—Charles von Schwanebach, ex-Controller of the Russian Empire and ex-Minister of Agriculture. . . . Joseph Wheelock, a well-known old-time actor, 70. . . . Dr. Joseph H. Senner, former Commissioner of Immigration at the port of New York, 62.

September 29.—Albert Maignan, the French historical painter, 64.

September 30.—Charles Estreicher, the distinguished Polish bibliographer and librarian, 81. . . . Rev. Francis Field Ellinwood, D.D., secretary of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions, 82.

October 1.—Charles A. Howland, president of the Quincy Mutual Life Insurance Company of Massachusetts, 79. . . . Ex-Congressman John W. Causey, of Delaware, 67. . . . Brig.-Gen. John E. Summers, U. S. A. Medical Corps, 86.

October 3.—Edward Wetherill, a prominent Quaker abolitionist before the Civil War, 88.

October 5.—Rt. Rev. Michael Tierney, Bishop of the Roman Catholic Diocese of Hartford, 69.

October 8.—Pearson B. Conn, publisher of the Steubenville, Ohio, *Herald*, 96. . . . Stephen A. Douglas, a well-known Chicago lawyer, 58. . . . George Wilson, secretary of the New York Chamber of Commerce for forty years, 70.

October 9.—Joseph O'Connor, chief of the editorial staff of the Rochester, N. Y., *Post-Express*, 67. . . . Elbridge Henry Goss, author and banker, of Melrose, Mass., 78.

October 10.—William D. Murphy, the prison reformer, 76.

October 11.—Gen. Eppa Hunton, of Virginia, 86. . . . Sir Henry Drummond Wolff, British Ambassador to Spain from 1892 to 1900, 78.

October 12.—Col. J. Mansfield Davies, a veteran of the Civil War, 80. . . . Ex-Congressman Joseph A. Scranton, founder of the *Scranton Daily Republican*, 70.

October 13.—Dr. Daniel Coit Gilman, first president of Johns Hopkins University, 77 (see page 552).

October 15.—Edwin Reed, a well-known writer in the Bacon-Shakespeare controversy, 73. . . . Antoine Jules Cesar Venceslas Ermanigilde Muzzarelli, an officer of the French Academy and a veteran of the Franco-Prussian War, 61. . . . Miss Carol H. Beck, a well-known historical portrait painter.

October 16.—Rev. Joseph Leycester Lyne (Father Ignatius), 71.

October 17.—Major-Gen. Orlov, commander of the Russian punitive expedition to crush the Baltic insurrection in 1905-'06.

October 18.—Field Marshal Marquis Michitsura Nodzu, the famous Japanese commander, 68.

October 19.—Gustave Solomon Rogers, the comedian, 39. . . . Sir John Henry Puleston, formerly known as American member of the British House of Commons, 78. . . . John Durand, translator of the historical works of H. A. Taine.

# SOME FINAL CARTOONS ON THE PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN.



THE CABINET ON THE JOB.

From the *Evening World* (New York).

(Mr. Taft's eminent fitness for the Presidency has been so patent to his former colleagues in the Cabinet, that practically every member of that body has taken occasion to make one or more speeches in favor of his candidacy.)



THE PRESIDENTIAL HANDICAP!

(The cartoonists are picturing Mr. Bryan as in doubt whether he is running against Mr. Taft or Mr. Roosevelt.)

From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).



A STRANGE BEDFELLOW, INDEED.

Mr. Gompers has some new ideas about politics, "THAT'S DIFFERENT, JUDGE TAFT, I HADN'T UNDERSTOOD YOUR LABOR DECISIONS THIS WAY."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



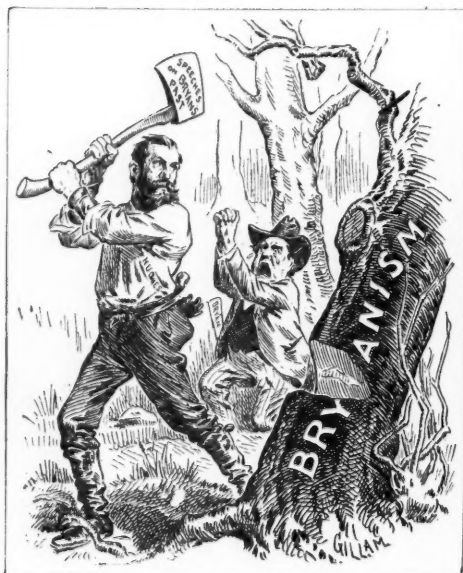




APPLYING FOR THE JOB.

UNCLE SAM: "Well, what experience have you had?"

From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



"WOODMAN, SPARE THAT TREE."

(Governor Hughes on his Western campaign.)

From the *Globe* (New York).



HASN'T GOT THE COMBINATION.

(The combination is T-A-F-T.)

From the *Globe* (New York).



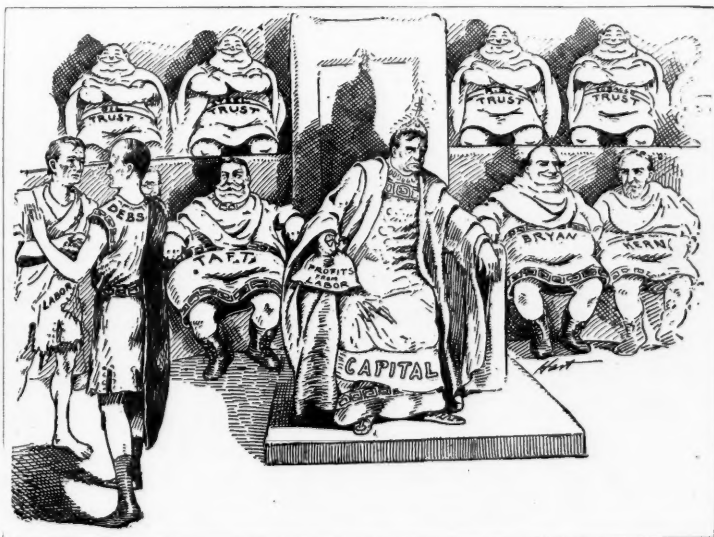
"HE BEGAN IT, TEACHER."

The National Schoolmaster is somewhat indignant at the prevalence of mudslinging.

From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).



"THE CALL OF THE WILD!"  
From the *Daily Eagle*  
(Brooklyn, N. Y.).



BEWARE THE IDES OF MARCH!

CÆSAR: Let me have men about me that are fat;  
Sleek-headed men, and such as sleep o' nights;  
Yond Cassius has a lean and hungry look;  
He thinks too much. Such men are dangerous.

—Julius Caesar, Act I.

From the *Evening Call* (New York).



"WE'VE BOTH HAD A PERFECTLY CORKING GOOD TIME!"

From the *Daily Eagle* (Brooklyn, N. Y.).



"WAITING FOR AN ANSWER."

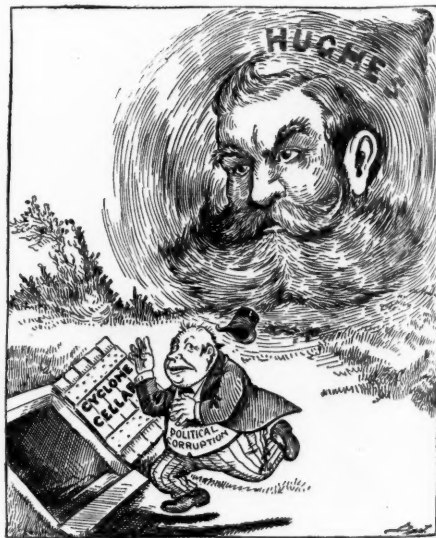
(The Public waiting for answers to Governor Hughes' questions.)

From the *Daily Eagle* (Brooklyn, N. Y.).



THEY'RE AGAINST HUGHES!

From the *Daily Eagle* (Brooklyn, N. Y.).



THE POLITICAL TORNADO.

Governor Hughes takes the West by storm.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



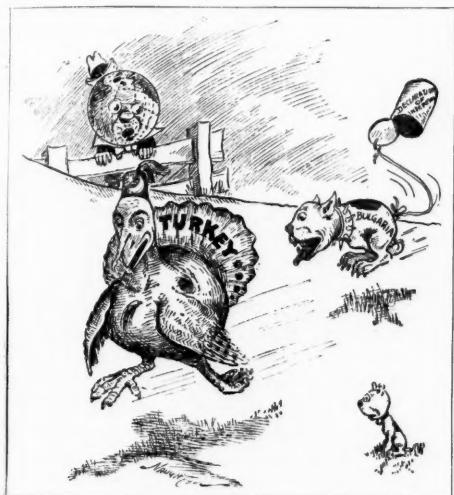


LOOKS LIKE A TOUCHDOWN FOR TAFT.  
From the *Press* (Philadelphia).

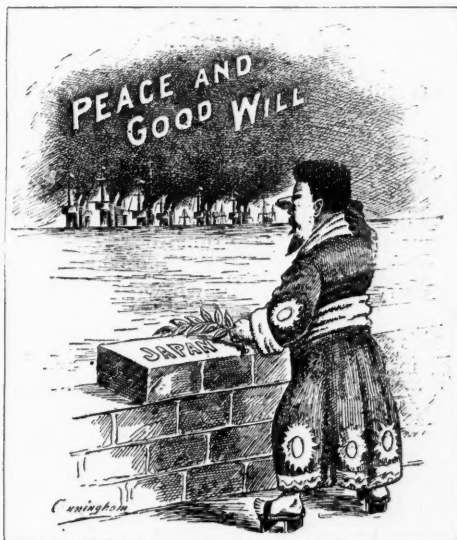


THE "PEERLESS LEADER" FINDS A "DEAD ONE" ON HIS HANDS.

From the *News Tribune* (Duluth).



"TROUBLE IN THE BALKANS."  
From the *Evening Herald* (Duluth).



APROPOS OF THE CORDIAL WELCOME EXTENDED TO OUR FLEET BY THE JAPANESE NATION.

From the *Herald* (Washington, D. C.).

# DANIEL C. GILMAN: BUILDER OF UNIVERSITIES.

BY NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.

(President of Columbia University.)

IN the unexpectedly sudden death of President Gilman all that is best in American life has lost one of its most noteworthy representatives. It was Mr. Gilman's lot to live at a most interesting time in the history of American civilization. His sound early training, his family traditions, his opportunities for foreign travel, and his wide acquaintance with public men and scholars in all lands, gave exceptional power to his mature and well-balanced mind and provided an admirable counterpoise to his unusual powers of imagination and initiative. While President Gilman was intimately associated with many and important undertakings of a public, a scientific, and a distinctively educational character, he will be chiefly remembered, and deservedly so, for his creative work in planning and organizing the Johns Hopkins University, which work marked the beginning of a new era in the history of higher education.

The name of this obscure Baltimore merchant who left his fortune to found a university and a hospital has been made famous in every part of the known world by President Gilman, by the men whom he invited to his side, by the forces which they together set in motion, and by the scientific and literary achievements of themselves and their students.

While Mr. Gilman was the college librarian at Yale there was stirring in his mind the thought of a new educational movement which should be creative, not imitative, in character, and which should have for its primary end the advancement of knowledge rather than the instruction of youth. He realized early in his life how essential such an undertaking as this was for our American life and for the integrity and vitality of our American democracy. His experience as the administrative head of the University of California gave him a still wider outlook and a broader acquaintance with men and things, so that when, acting upon the best advice which they could obtain, the trustees appointed under the terms of the will of

Johns Hopkins chose Mr. Gilman to the presidency of their non-existent university, they not only did the wisest thing that it was in their power to do, but they chose the one American who was then best fitted to be their leader and their guide.

Fortunately for Mr. Gilman and for the United States, the means to execute his ideas were at hand, as was the personal confidence in his judgment which enabled him to go forward rapidly and without trammels. Mr. Gilman had read long and to good purpose in the history of universities. He realized that a university cannot be built of brick and stone, and that the name may be claimed by an empty and futile thing. He realized that this new university must consist of scholars with the ability to create and to stimulate others to push forward, however little, the boundaries of human knowledge. When Gildersleeve and Sylvester and Martin and Rowland and Remsen were brought together in a university faculty, a real American university had begun to be. It is within my own memory how President Gilman's plans and choice of associates touched the imagination and fired the zeal of some of the most brilliant of the younger American scholars of that time. From their places on the benches and in the laboratories of the German universities, from New England, from the Middle West, and from the South, the choicest and best of these young zealots in scholarship turned their faces toward Baltimore as a good Mussulman looks toward Mecca.

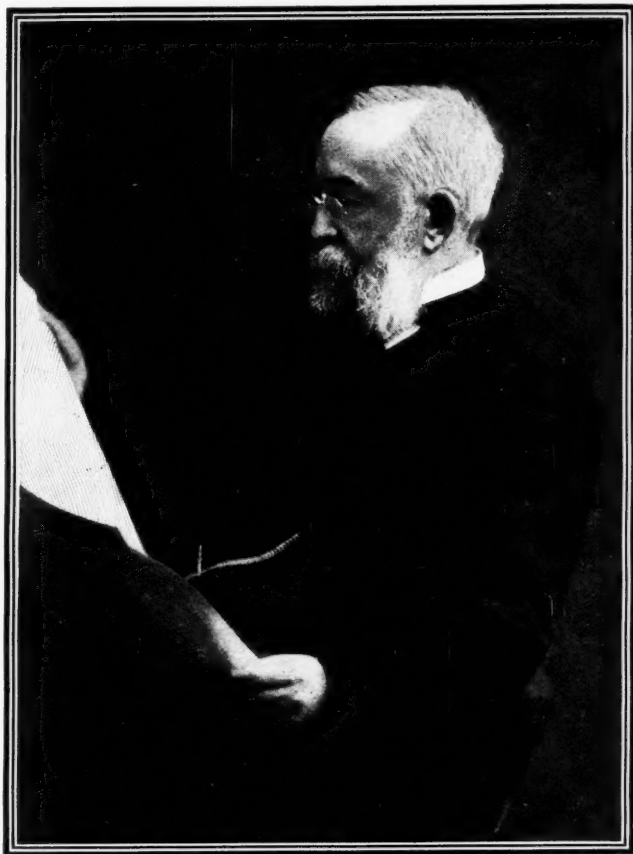
The first company of students who gathered at Baltimore was as remarkable in its way and as prophetic of what was to follow as the group of teachers who were there assembled. The rooms in which these men gathered were simple enough. They had about them nothing to inflame the imagination or to stir the esthetic sense; they were even without the traditions which have given to many a dingy room in Europe a value and a significance all its own. But there was something in those simple rooms more powerful even than architecture or tradition. It

was nothing less than a turning of the American soul toward the highest and best things in the life of scholarship and of culture, and the appreciation by ambitious young Americans of the opportunity that was now offered to step out beyond the narrow limits which had hitherto confined them in their search for scholarly knowledge. All this Mr. Gilman brought about by the force of his own personality and by the power of his own ideas.

This is not the place to write the history of the Johns Hopkins University or to trace in detail the revolutionary effect that it has had upon higher education in America. In this REVIEW for January, 1901, at the time of Mr. Gilman's retirement from the presidency of the Johns Hopkins University, I was afforded an opportunity to express my opinion on these points. For the moment we do well to fix our minds upon the man to whose initiative are due all the splendid things that have followed from the foundation of the Johns Hopkins University.

Mr. Gilman's nature enabled him to go forward in constructive things with the help and sympathy of all who were associated with him. His usefulness was always marked by kindness, and his constructive power was tempered with conciliation. He could find the middle way between opposing views, which enabled him to advance.

Mr. Gilman was a typical representative of the best and most elevating type of scholarship. There are those who claim the splendid word scholar for him who, with no atmosphere or sense of perspective, spends his life in the everlasting digging of a narrow field. For such a man, however, some other term



THE LATE DR. DANIEL C. GILMAN.

more just and more descriptive than that of scholar will have to be found. A scholar is a man who lives in and with the world of ideas, who gathers inspiration from both men and books, whose life is shaped by ideas and enriched with them, and who, by his own power of construction, adds something to their number, to their power, or to their applications. Mr. Gilman was a scholar. He was a scholar who could execute and who had broad intellectual sympathies. He knew the world on its human as well as on its physical side, and in his passing we lose a distinguished and a noble figure whose leadership we shall be glad to look back upon as a splendid memory, and whose friendship those who were so fortunate as to enjoy it will always prize.



## FERDINAND I., "CZAR OF THE BULGARS."

BY ALFRED STEAD.

**T**HIRTY years ago the Concert of Europe, in solemn assembly at Berlin, created the Principality of Bulgaria, the constituent parts being fragments of the Turkish Empire. In the words of the Treaty of Berlin:

Bulgaria is to be an independent principality, subject to the Sultan, with a Christian government and a national militia. The Prince of Bulgaria will be freely chosen by the Bulgarian nation and accepted by the Sublime Porte, with the approval of the great powers; no member

of a reigning European family can be elected Prince of Bulgaria; in case of a vacancy of the throne the election will be repeated under the same conditions and with the same forms; before the election of the Prince, an assembly of notables will decide on the constitutional statute of the principality at Tirnova. The laws will be based on the following principles: difference of religion forms no hindrance to the exercise of all civil and political rights and the holding of public office; commercial treaties concluded with the Porte shall be binding on Bulgaria; she will not be able to introduce any changes in them without the consent of the power concerned; no transit duties can be charged on merchandise



passing through Bulgaria; the rights and privileges of foreign subjects, the right of consular jurisdiction and protection, as instituted in the capitulations and by custom, will hold good until abrogated with the consent of the powers concerned; Bulgaria will pay tribute to Turkey, and will take part in her debts; Bulgarians traveling in Turkey will be under Turkish law and subject to the Turkish authorities.

A very attenuated and meager skeleton of a state was this, produced by the wisecracks of Europe, each intensely jealous of the other,—and this small nation in embryo, peopled by peasants snatched from the administration of the Turk, would have had small chance of continued existence had it not pleased fate to find one who perhaps alone of all the princes of Europe could rule Bulgaria successfully. Prince Alexander of Battenberg was elected first Prince of Bulgaria in 1879, and reigned for some six years, during which Bulgaria's area was nearly doubled by the inclusion of eastern Roumelia, and the young state undertook her first war,—that against Servia. The Prince was marked by many fine characteristics, but was unable to withstand the constant pressure of Russia and the uncertainties of his subjects. Prince Alexander's abdication failed to give Bulgaria into Russian hands largely owing to the efforts of the Bulgarian patriot, Stambulov, but the task before the new ruler could hardly have been regarded as an enviable one. The impossibility of securing a Prince who should enjoy the support of the great powers led to an anxious interval, during which the Bulgarians fought for time. The election of Prince Ferdinand of Saxo-Coburg as Prince Ferdinand I. of Bulgaria in 1887 saved the situation and, although few realized it then, enabled Bulgaria to become a nation. The fates had provided the man for the situation, and only after twenty years can we realize how well he has filled it.

#### A MISSIONARY OF WESTERN IDEAS.

The materials with which he had to build were far from perfect. An inexperienced, intensely democratic people, but recently freed from the Turkish yoke, intensely suspicious of him as a foreigner with different and advanced ideas, and the strong disapproval of the great powers,—these make all the more noteworthy the success which has attended the efforts of Prince Ferdinand during twenty long years of missionary endeavor in Bulgaria. For in truth he has stood as a missionary of western culture and western civilized ideas in the country over which he

rules, and by his example has led his people along the path of progress.

To understand the magnitude of the task accomplished by Prince Ferdinand we must remember that when he ascended the throne there was in reality nothing, and now there is much, with promise of more. A Roman Catholic set to rule over a Greek Orthodox people, an aristocrat called upon to direct the destinies of a democratic nation: the path of progress was bound to bristle with obstacles and dangers. The fact that his election did not receive the sanction of the great powers was really a blessing in disguise, since it forced the ruler and his people to be mutually dependent, knowing that beyond each other there was little to hope. The Prince declared, "I have become a Bulgarian," and worked day and night for "this people, so good, so simple, so frank, who have made me the trustee of their liberties, happiness, and peace."

The Bulgarian people at the time of his accession presented a very difficult problem. Democratic to an extreme, a mass of small, landowning peasants, their recent release from the authority of the Turk had accentuated their independence and self-sufficiency. Thrifty and industrious, blessed with magnificent physique, they were self-reliant and self-sufficient to a degree which, while aiding the nation to continue, did not make government easy for a stranger Prince.

All the strongest Bulgarian traits and characteristics were called to the front at the time of Prince Ferdinand's arrival, owing to the prominence attained by M. Stambulov, that Bulgarian patriot who, by Bulgarian methods and rugged strength, had saved his country from Russian annexation. For the first years of his reign the Minister overshadowed the Prince as Bismarck overshadowed the present Emperor of Germany, and during his probationary period Prince Ferdinand undoubtedly learned well the lesson which he has since taken as a fundamental idea,—that he alone shall be the strongest statesman in Bulgaria.

#### CREATING A MIDDLE CLASS.

Prince Ferdinand on ascending the throne found that his subjects were all of one class; there was no aristocracy, no middle class, and no merchants or moneyed class. A monotonous level of sturdy agricultural peasants, while excellent in itself, does not present many facilities for a ruler. And thus one of the first essentials was the creation of a

moneyed class. In twenty years much has been accomplished in this direction, and government has become correspondingly easier.

#### PARLIAMENTARISM IN BULGARIA.

The Bulgarian people have universal suffrage, but are not yet ripe for it. The parliamentary system has tended to hinder rather than to further national progress. The years of Bulgarian independence have been marked by constant parliamentary change, and the frequent exercise of the right of dissolution. From 1879 to 1905, counting only changes of prime ministers and ignoring the frequent reconstructions of cabinets, there have been nineteen cabinets. Thus it will be seen that had Bulgaria had to rely only upon its elected representatives for the direction or even inception of policy, it would have fared badly in this parliamentary chaos. The elections, although conducted by secret ballot, frequently show the influence of the government actually in power in the return of only a very insignificant fraction of the opposition. But all these details are inevitably attendant upon the possession of full parliamentary privileges by an unprepared people, and undoubtedly things must improve as time goes on. In the past, however, the one stable point in Bulgaria has been the Prince, and he has succeeded in maintaining a definite policy despite the constant parliamentary confusions.

#### ONE MAN IN SEVEN A SOLDIER.

Inevitably one of the principal cares of the Prince has been the military forces of the country, since it is largely by its army that a small European state remains independent. Other reasons, notably the Macedonian question, have tended to induce the Bulgarians to create an enormous army of very considerable value, although there has been only the short campaign against the Servians to enable its merits in practice to be judged. The Bulgarian people, numbering about 4,500,000, are able to put into the field over 300,000 men in time of war,—at least that is the paper strength. This means three out of every forty-five of the population, or one man out of every seven, would be under arms. Before the Russo-Japanese War, General Kuropatkin, on inspecting the Bulgarian troops, made them the compliment of calling them "the Japanese of Europe." It would, however, be easy to find fault with that description, since the Bulgarian soldier lacks many of the qualities of the Japanese. It is

perhaps well also to quote the views of a most competent military observer:

The force of the Bulgarian army lies in the defensive. It is not certain that they would show equal qualities in attack; the officers are not so highly trained or so efficient as formerly, owing to promotion being more a question of influence than of merit; the artillery, even the new quick-firers from Krupp, is not as good as had been expected; the munitions of war are not above suspicion, and, most important of all, it is doubtful whether there is a war chest at all commensurate with the size of the army to be supported in a war.

How far these criticisms are justified time alone can tell; but undoubtedly there is no tendency, either in Constantinople or Belgrade, to underestimate the military force of Bulgaria.

#### BULGARIAN ECONOMIC PROGRESS.

Economic and constructive matters have also received their greatest stimulus from the Prince, and to his initiative Bulgaria owes her high mileage of railways and two excellent harbors on the Black Sea, one of which alone cost a million and a half dollars to construct. Industrial development receives his special interest.

The very considerable resources of the country are still to be developed and worked, but as the new roads and railways intersect the land this will become increasingly easy. It is a boast in Bulgaria to-day that home-built railways are far more cheaply built and equally serviceable than those entrusted to foreign contractors. Many new roads are being constructed with the advent of the motor-car, and the Prince by his devotion to automobilism has brought lasting benefit to the country. His support of the arts and his really considerable excavation works for the unearthing of the very numerous Roman and other remains in Bulgaria deserve mention. It is indeed rather remarkable how little is known about the antiquities of Bulgaria. Financially, Bulgaria has made great strides, especially with regard to her foreign credit. Practically Bulgaria's credit is on a 5 per cent. basis, which for the former despised and rejected vassal principality is remarkably good showing.

Perhaps Prince Ferdinand's greatest work for Bulgaria has been accomplished outside its frontiers. By his constant travels throughout Europe and his visits to the courts of Europe he has made Bulgaria well known, and has created personal ties of inestimable value. His monument is the Bulgaria of to-day, founded on Bulgaria of 1879.



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Mary Garden.

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Geraldine Farrar.

Maria Labia.

Emmy Destinn.

FOUR OF THE SEASON'S SINGERS IN GRAND OPERA.

## THE SEASON'S MUSICAL OUTLOOK.

BY LAWRENCE GILMAN.

A SEASON which will offer, in the course of five months, no fewer than 300 musical "entertainments" of the first class may well lay claim to be ranked as extraordinary; and this is taking account only of operatic, orchestral, choral, and chamber-music activities, leaving aside the appearances in recital of an army of pianists, violinists, 'cellists, and singers. Such is the degree of the musical edification which will be provided for New York in the season now opening. It is a program which, in its extent, at least, is almost appalling; yet it is not likely that it will prove too abundant a repast for a community which has already manifested beyond mistake a truly prodigious appetite for musical fare of the better sort. That this appetite is increasing in its demands and its capacity seems clear; and it is developing some new and interesting predilections. They are appearing principally in the field of opera, which still occupies the foreground in the musical prospect, as far as the general public is concerned; so let us first turn our gaze toward that glittering and crowded region of the tonal world.

The fact that, of the sixty-eight operas

which are announced for this season's repertory at the Manhattan and the Metropolitan, seventeen are either wholly new to this country, or were produced here for the first time last year, is a striking indication of the alteration which has been effected in the attitude of the American public toward its operatic diversions.

That Mr. Hammerstein should continue to put his trust largely in the potential effect of new works is only natural; so we find him offering, for his coming season, a promising list of operas hitherto unheard (or, in the case of some of them, virtually unknown) in New York. His plans contemplate the production of these novelties: Massenet's "Jongleur de Notre-Dame" and "Griséidis"; the "Princesse d'Auberge" of the Belgian composer, Jan Blockx, and the "Dolores" of the Spanish composer, Tomas Breton, which was promised for last season, but withheld. He also announces a series of pantomimes of an unfamiliar kind. In addition to these actual novelties, he will produce, for the first time at the Manhattan and the second time in America, Richard Strauss' "Salome"; be-



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GATTI-CASAZZA.

sides Verdi's "Othello" and "Falstaff," Saint-Saëns' "Samson et Dalila," and Bizet's "Pêcheurs de Perles"; and, as *media* for the display of Tetrzzini's amiable activities, a number of the creaking antiquities of older Italy will be brought forward, to the confusion of those who had imagined that contemporary taste had outgrown their somewhat elemental persuasions. For his prime sensation Mr. Hammerstein will put forward Mary Garden,—who, as Debussy's *Mélisande*, proved to the hilt her claim to rank among the most exquisite histrions on the lyric stage,—as the tempestuous *Salome* of Strauss and Oscar Wilde. In the Italian dramatic soprano, Maria Labia, he has secured a singing-actress whose European reputation is authentic. She is said to be a superb *Tosca*, and she will be heard first in that rôle, with the admirable Renaud as *Scarpia*. In addition to Labia, Mary Garden and Tetrzzini, we shall hear again, at the Manhattan, the still potent Melba. There are two new mezzo-sopranos, the American Mariska-Aldrich and the Italian Doria, in addition to Gerville-Réache. Among the new tenors are the Frenchman, Vallés, from Lyons; Taccani, from La Scala; and Colombini, from Odessa. Zenatello and Dalmores are retained. The baritones are those of last year: Renaud, Sammarco, Dufranne, Gilibert, Crabbe, and—it is hoped—Périer, the superlative *Pelléas* of last year. Vieuille, the French bass, is new; he was the original

*Arkël* of "Pelléas et Mélisande" at the Opéra-Comique in Paris. Mr. Campanini will again exercise his masterful dominance over the orchestral forces.

At the Metropolitan Opera House, the new and hopeful administrators, Messrs. Gatti-Casazza, of Milan, and Dippel, of New York and Germany, have wisely taken a leaf out of Mr. Hammerstein's book, and have determined to lay stress upon certain productions of new works,—and strange it is to witness the preparations for an opera season in which greater emphasis is laid upon the works to be performed than upon the singers who are to perform them! It was not so in the consulship of Grau, nor in that of the ingenious Conried, save when the lure of a possible sensation entered into the question. That Messrs. Gatti-Casazza and Dippel have secured some interesting works seems not unlikely; though neither they nor Mr. Hammerstein have anything to offer us this year which compares in promise of artistic significance with last season's "Pelléas et Mélisande" and "Louise." We shall hear, though, if the plans are carried through, the "Tiefeland" of the pianist-composer, Eugen d'Albert, an adaptation of Angel Guimera's Spanish tragedy, "Marta of the Lowlands," which, as a play, has been twice produced in New York; the Italian Catalani's "La Wally"; Goldmark's transposition into operatic terms of Dickens' "Cricket on the Hearth,"—to be done in English; "The Pipe of De-

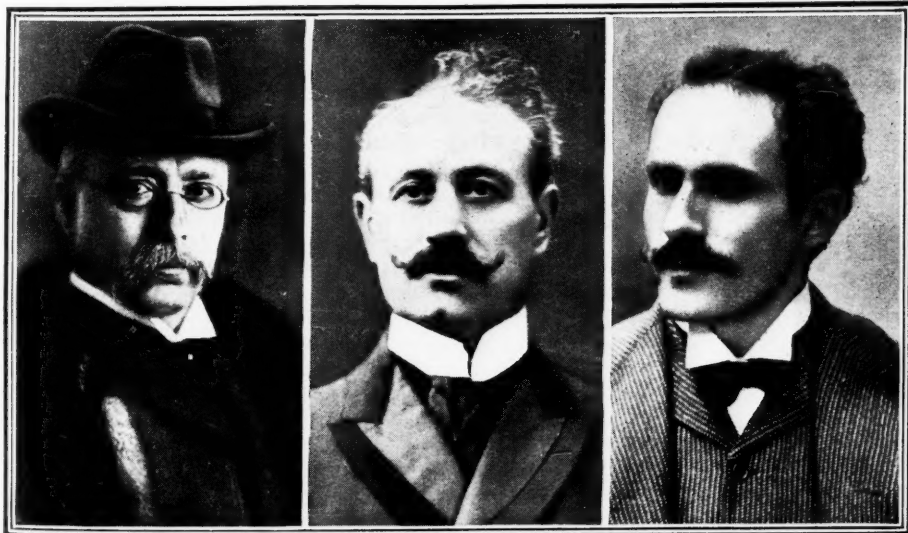


sire," by the American composer, Frederick S. Converse, which was produced in Boston several years ago; Laparra's "Habanera," which won acclaim at the Paris Opéra-Comique early in the year; Tschaikowsky's "La Dama di Picche" ("The Queen of Spades"); Smetana's "Die Verkaufte Braut," which has figured upon Metropolitan prospectuses for several years; Puccini's "Le Villi,"—the immature first work of the composer of "Tosca" and "Madame Butterfly"; and, as a possibility, a still uncompleted score by the composer of the perennially delightful "Hänsel und Gretel,"—"Königskinder," which, as "The Children of the King," is to be done in an English version.

It cannot be said that any of these operas bids fair to be of first-rate artistic importance,—in this respect the Metropolitan is no more brilliantly equipped than is the Manhattan, so far as its wholly new productions are concerned. "La Dama di Picche" and "Die Verkaufte Braut" are virtual classics, of a minor order, and of no extraordinary significance. Puccini's "Le Villi" is far from typical of its composer's gifts in their best estate; nor has Catalani's opera been acclaimed as extraordinary. Whether "Tiefland," "The Cricket on the Hearth" (which is highly regarded in Germany), "Habanera," or "Königskinder" will reveal uncommon excellences, remains to be demonstrated, while

"The Pipe of Desire" has already disclosed itself as something a little less than epoch-making. But to reproach either the Metropolitan or the Manhattan managements for their failure to discover new masterpieces merely because a certain demand for them exists, would be as churlish as it would be absurd. It is doubtless sufficiently gratifying to be able to feel that, when the new masterwork *does* emerge, there will be a friendly market awaiting it.

Of singers the Metropolitan tells a glowing tale. Among those who will return to audiences familiar with them, are Olive Fremstad, Geraldine Farrar, Emma Eames, Johanna Gadski, Berta Morena, Marcella Sembrich, Louise Homer; and, among the men, Bonci, Caruso, Burrian, Burgstaller, Reiss, Scotti, Goritz, and Campanari. The superb *Amfortas* and *Wotan* of other seasons, Anton van Rooy, will be missed, as will the imperturbable Plançon; instead, we shall hear these new baritones: Fritz Feinhals, of Munich, Walter Soomer, of Leipsic, Jean Noté, of the Paris Opéra, and Pasquale Amato, from La Scala. The American basses, Allen Hinkley and Herbert Wither- spoon; the tenors, Carl Jörn, from the Berlin Royal Opera, and Erik Schmedes, from Vienna, are other important newcomers among the men. On the distaff side, among the newcomers, the one upon whom the fondest hopes are based is the famous Bohemian



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MAX FIEDLER.

CLEOFONTE CAMPANINI.

ARTURO TOSCANINI.

(New Boston Symphony conductor.) (Chief conductor at the Manhattan.) (The Metropolitan's new conductor.)

soprano, Emmy Bestinn, whose effective performances of such parts as *Salome*, *Madame Butterfly*, and *Aida* are scarcely less celebrated than her spirited quarrels with her equally famous rival, Miss Geraldine Farrar. Miss Destinn will make her début, it is announced, in "Tiefland." Another singer from whom interesting things are fairly to be expected is the Spaniard, Maria Gay, whose *Carmen* has created somewhat of a sensation abroad. We shall also wait upon the doings of Ester Adaberta, an Italian soprano; Frances Alda, who is said to hail from La Scala; Berenice James, an American; Félicie Kaschowska, who will sing German soprano rôles; Leonora Sparkes, an Englishwoman; Marianne Flahaut, a contralto from the Paris Opéra; and Matja van Niessen-Stone, a contralto who is known here as a concert singer. As to the conductors, the Metropolitan speaks with justifiable confidence. Arturo Toscanini, the eminent Italian, comes to America with a notable record of artistic triumphs achieved at La Scala, in Milan, where he has demonstrated what is said to be a singular mastery of the Wagner music-dramas. He will reveal to us "Tristan" and "Götterdämmerung," as viewed through the Latin temperament. Gustav Mahler, who last season proved himself a conductor of indisputable skill and intelligence, will return, as will also the veteran Alfred Hertz. Important mechanical changes have been made in the opera house; the orchestra has been enlarged, the chorus reorganized and amplified, and new stage directors have been secured. That the new managers are undertaking their task in a spirit of genuine artistic seriousness seems clear: it is a manifestation both refreshing and strange in the recent administration of the Metropolitan, which has of late years struggled under a grievous burden of time-serving and,—not to put too fine a point upon it,—deplorable hypocrisy.

When we turn from the shining turmoil of the opera-houses to the comparative serenity and aloofness of the concert halls, we find an equal thundering of lustrous names, but less,—disappointingly less,—concerning new works. An enterprising authority has taken the trouble to count no fewer than ninety-two pianists and seventy-three violinists who will exhibit their art in these regions during the coming season. We need here concern ourselves, fortunately, with only the more eminent of these. Considering first the pianists, it is agreeable to find the remarkable Ger-

man, Emil Sauer, who, a decade ago, made a memorable tour of this country, once more an American visitor. A versatile and impressive artist, he will have almost to himself those honors which fall to the lot of the celebrity who is comparatively a newcomer; for the majority of his rivals this season will be of recent familiarity,—Paderewski, who is in a class of his own; the Russian Lhévinne, who recalls his great countryman, Rubinstein, by his style and temperament; his fellow Slav, Gabrilowitsch; the Americans, Ernest Schelling and Fanny Bloomfield-Zeiser; the Englishwoman, Katherine Goodson, who plays with the force and brilliance of masculinity; and the Teutonic German, Schmitzer. Of those who have never before played in America, the foremost is the French pianist and composer, Cécile Chaminade.

It is a Russian, the youthful Mischa Elman, who leads the season's violinists. A veritable *Wunderkind*, as it seems, he has stirred Europe to extravagant expressions of admiration. The American, Albert Spalding, also comes trailing clouds of glory; and we shall hear, besides these, Arthur Hartman, Petschnikoff, another Russian; Sergei Kussewitzky, a famous double-bass player, and the distinguished 'cellists, Alwin Schroeder and Heinrich Warnke, besides an unfamiliar Englishman, Darbishire Jones.

As usual, New York will stagger under an embarrassment of orchestral riches. The New York Symphony, the Philharmonic, the Russian Symphony, and the People's Symphony societies, will continue in their accustomed ways, under their accustomed leaders; and there is on foot a plan for a number of symphony concerts to be given under the direction of Gustav Mahler. The Boston Symphony Orchestra will play under a new director, Max Fiedler, of Hamburg, who three years ago served as one of the conductors invited by the Philharmonic Society to demonstrate their capacities before this public.

As has been observed, no novelties of the first importance are promised to our patrons of the concert room. Even the Oratorio Society, which of late years has done yeomen's work in the promulgation of new works, declines this year upon Elgar's flaccid and sentimental "Dream of Gerontius," which it was the first to perform in this country, and Wolf-Ferrari's "La Vita Nuova," which it produced last year.



SOME OF THE HEROES OF A UNIQUE CAMPAIGN.

(Physicians of the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service who officered the San Francisco plague war: Top row—Officers G. A. Weyer, C. H. Woolsey, J. L. Heward, A. D. Prentice, P. M. Thomas, H. H. Hopkins. Middle row—Officers R. H. Creel, L. S. Schmitt, G. M. Converse, J. R. Hurley, Colby Rucker, Bruce Ffolks. Seated—Officers C. W. Vogel, H. A. Stansfield, Rupert Blue, Carroll Fox.)

## SAN FRANCISCO'S PLAGUE WAR.

BY AUGUSTIN C. KEANE.

THREE hundred and nine thousand deaths from plague occurred in the six and one-half months between April 28 and November 9, 1907, in the Punjab Province of India. This same plague broke out in San Francisco on May 27, 1907. It threatened other California communities. California and the Punjab cover equal areas, while the population of the latter ten times exceeds that of the former.

As if destruction by fire had not brought suffering enough, the doom of a pestilential epidemic threatened San Francisco. Yet, just as the city has arisen upon a finer foundation since the catastrophe of April 18, 1906, so to-day San Francisco is almost wholly cleansed of plague and proofed against rats, the propagators of the epidemic. Comparison with the ravages of pestilence in India is hardly just, because there religious prejudice prevents the killing of rats, although the frightful mortality of human

beings can be traced to an epizootic developed among rodents and spread by their fleas. On the other hand, San Francisco has been saved by an unrelenting war upon rodents, a war without precedent, unique, and fairly marvelous in its proportions.

At the crucial moment a not-to-be-deterred energy moved forward, grasped the situation, wiped out pestilence, and has now made the city virtually invulnerable to epidemics. But few outsiders are acquainted with the work done there, work which by itself has made San Francisco probably the world's most sanitary city, and which, combined with the scale of reconstruction followed since the fire of 1906, will realize the first twentieth-century city.

### THE PLAGUE'S EARLY OUTBREAKS.

When the plague evinced its virulence in September, 1907, the San Francisco authorities knew from former experience what to do.

Previously, in March, 1900, this pest had made its first appearance there. For four years it stirred darkly, claiming 121 victims from the date of the earliest recognized case till February, 1904, and of these cases only eight convalesced. An outbreak of plague is seldom disastrous at first; the disease apparently grows quietly, bursting forth every few years in a semi-mild way, but gathering strength all the while, till it suddenly flares out, sweeping a community from end to end with terrific mortality. So its initial appearance in San Francisco was not very fearful; yet it was quite bad enough. Dr. Rupert Blue, passed assistant surgeon in the United States Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service, took charge in combating it, and eradicated all signs of epidemic. Three years more and there were no further evidences of the disease. Then, in May, 1907, it cropped up again. Till September the city health department struggled against odds, and finally had to call in Dr. Blue once more.

The spread of infection might have been prevented with that first case on May 27, 1907, had not fate been ironically baffling in hiding all traces of where the disease was then latent. A sailor from the tug *Wizard* was brought in a moribund condition to the Marine Hospital, where he died without regaining consciousness. An autopsy confirmed the diagnosis of bubonic plague. Immediately efforts were made to discover where he had contracted the disease, so that it might be stamped out at once. But meanwhile the tug had left port and was lost off the coast of Mendocino. Hence, there was no means of ascertaining the source of infection; all the authorities knew was that a plague-spot threatened the city and they were helpless to obliterate it.

Probably other cases were occurring, but they passed unnoticed by doctors unacquainted with this malady. Not before August 12, 1907, was another definite instance of plague located. Here a boy died of it within eight days after the death of his uncle, whose illness had been diagnosed as rapidly fatal pneumonia. Indications point to the probability of the uncle's case having been incorrectly judged, and very likely many deaths from plague went down as "rapidly fatal pneumonia," mistaken by doctors inexperienced in the characteristics of pestilence. For instance, a mother who visited her brother dying of this "rapidly fatal pneumonia" brought back plague to her two daughters. But very soon local physicians

became acquainted with the symptoms, and shortly plague cases were recognized at the rate of three and four daily. In one small crowded house where there were three beds in one room, each bed supplied its case. Summer came in full swing and, with the advent of warm, dry weather, the epidemic moved from Telegraph Hill out toward Lobos Square, appearing simultaneously in the Mission District, south of Market Street, and so threatening to spread generally over the whole city. Now, beyond doubt, plague had come into full sway.

Doctors became exceedingly observant of every suspicious case. Autopsies were held to determine the least symptom. Those experienced at the Marine Hospital grew feverishly watchful and lent their best assistance. The city Board of Health turned its every energy to combating a disastrous epidemic, and under the direction of Dr. Watkins, city health officer, rose to the situation. Dr. Watkins in particular exerted his best efforts. But the doctors were all handicapped by lack of proper training to grapple with the plague, which was daily looming larger. For the convenience of business, newspapers said nothing to increase general alarm. Nevertheless, the task of wiping out the plague rapidly mounted beyond the abilities of those fighting it. An epidemic of virulent force was imminent, and those in whose charge rested the health of San Francisco realized this.

#### THE CITY APPEALS TO FEDERAL AUTHORITY.

In September Mayor Taylor telegraphed President Roosevelt asking for expert assistance to avert the threatening danger. He also asked that Dr. Rupert Blue, who is recognized as America's greatest plague expert, be sent into San Francisco with his corps. The President immediately responded, and Dr. Blue arrived on September 11. As soon as he had taken in the situation Dr. Blue realized its gravity, and wired back to Washington. Not at that time, and indeed during no subsequent period, was the danger of an epidemic accompanied by a high death-rate half so great as the danger of foreign ports shutting off communication with San Francisco or of the city's being compelled to place itself under quarantine. Therein lay the real danger during the incipient stages of the epidemic, a threat against San Francisco's commercial prosperity and one which prompt action alone could avert. Surgeon-General



Walter Wyman at Washington ordered into San Francisco Officers Stansfield, Fox, Long, Vogel, Creel, and McCoy, all of whom had fought plague and cholera in the Philippines. Ahead of these came Passed Assistant Surgeon Colby Rucker, who had been in the previous San Francisco epidemic, and nearly died of yellow fever in New Orleans. Others entered upon the work later. But Dr. Blue straightway assumed charge, rented a building in Fillmore Street to be fitted up as headquarters, and at once set about organizing his forces for the campaign.

#### A PERFECTLY ORGANIZED CAMPAIGN.

It is safe to say that never has any similar campaign been fought under more perfect organization or done its work more thoroughly. Stupendous as was the task confronting these men in attempting to eradicate an epidemic which had already made sure its foothold, just as stupendous was their conception of how to conquer the pestilence itself and make a repetition of it impossible. Everything was placed on a strictly military basis. The city was divided into thirteen districts, with an officer over each, similar to the division of a regiment into companies. Each district commander had his local headquarters, from which he carried on operations like the captain of a company of soldiers. Graded under him were four classes of workers: inspectors, assistant inspectors, foremen, and each foreman with five laborers, in a system parallel to the organization of petty officers and privates in the army. The men were all picked carefully, and put under absolute discipline from the outset.

At first slight difficulties arose because politicians considered that these jobs would be sinecures good to get their friends' friends into. Perhaps politicians did have some influence up to November 25, while San Francisco was paying the bills, but when the supervisors found that the expenses had become too great for the local treasury, depleted as it was by reconstruction projects after the fire, and asked for federal assistance in financing the plague-war, an end came to this division of spoils. Thus, the city had paid its laborers \$18 for a week of five and one-half days; the federal Government paid the same men \$15 for a week of six days. The Government's outlay reached \$1100 a day, and every cent of that sum was made to mean something. In order to inspire these laborers to do their best, the principle of promotions went into practice, and those

whose positions corresponded to non-commissioned army officers received warrants of appointment. When they left they were given an honorable discharge, providing their service had covered three months' capable work,—and no one whose work was incapable remained three months in the service. As a result, from Dr. Blue right on down to the last laborer, each man in the campaign exerted himself to the utmost in attacking the plague, striving to be an efficient factor in the campaign.

But it was a campaign without precedent. No model of procedure existed, and not only did original lines of attack have to be planned out, but the men at the top even had to determine just what should form their paraphernalia, from the best means of squirting disinfectant into a sewer to the method of bookkeeping by which the cost of that disinfectant should be entered. Not alone was there a growing epidemic to fight, but the weapons and ammunition for that fight had to be invented. Dr. Blue appointed Dr. Rucker executive officer in charge of the Fillmore Street headquarters. Before a single move had been made in the field of active fighting Dr. Rucker had to foresee every need of the campaign. To him fell the preparation of orders for issuance, the arrangements for keeping accounts, passing upon the personnel of laborers, providing an adequate scheme for filing all records and statistics of the campaign, and a thousand and one other possible contingent details.

For instance, as a working basis, a big map of San Francisco was obtained to show the spread of contagion month by month, and upon it was marked with colored pins each place in which a plague case had appeared either among humans or rats, the color of the pins being different for each month; the map also showed the progress of work in exterminating rats and their return to any locality once cleaned out. All well and good, but pins can be bought with only three or four different colors. It became necessary to devise a scheme for getting pins of a great many different colors. To paint them would not do; paint comes off when dry. For a day and a half this apparently insignificant problem foiled solution. Then suddenly Dr. Rucker thought of having the pinheads dipped in variously tinted sealing wax. Such is only a very small instance of the minutiae with which this campaign was worked out, and every such detail had to be foreseen before the men could enter upon actual opera-

tions. One more persistent "little difficulty" arose in getting tags to mark the captured rats. It was against rodents that the campaign focused itself, and every one had to have a tag showing (1) where caught, (2) when caught, and (3) by whom caught. Very simple? Yes, but the tag must be waterproof, must not tear even when wet, and though wet, ink must not run upon it. Every imaginable type of tag was tried, and it took two months of scouring America before a satisfactory one was found. The threat of pestilence raging into an uncontrollable epidemic had so grown that it had to be grappled immediately, and within a week of the arrival of Drs. Blue and Rucker their forces were fully prepared to begin active warfare.

#### RATS THE PLAGUE'S PRIME AGENTS.

Because rats are the chief agents in spreading the plague contagion, against them the campaign was directed. The close association between plague among human beings and that among rats is proved conclusively by numerous cases. A quaintly pathetic instance is that of two small boys who had been infected with the disease and were under treatment at the Pest Hospital. Dr. Blue, anxious to locate the source of their infection, sat himself upon the cot of one of the youngsters one morning, and began a fatherly chat: "What do you like to do most, my little fellow?" "I guess playing is most fun," the boy answered. "Of course," agreed the doctor, "but what kind of playing?" "Oh, there's a barn near our house, and we plays there most of the time," said the youngster. "A barn," repeated Dr. Blue, scenting his goal; "a barn's great fun! How do you play there?" "Well, the last thing we played was funeral," explained the little fellow. "You see, me and that boy in the bed over there, we found a dead rat, and of course it oughter be buried, so we had a funeral for him." There was no need of questioning further to find the source of infection. Even more direct evidence is the case of a family five members of which contracted the contagion. On November 19 the man of the family was reported to the authorities to be a victim of plague. He died during diagnosis. The family was all examined and a well-developed case found in the youngest baby. Next morning the mother fell ill of the same infection. She died on December 3, and two days later another of her children, two years old, and the grand-

mother as well, both developed the disease. Of the whole family, a baby boy, eighteen months old, alone escaped. Yet no evident focus of infection exhibited itself. They were clean, tidy Germans, scrupulous about their dwelling, which was situated over a well-ordered store. It was difficult to see whence the disease had come. However, floorings within the house and the wood surfacing of the back yard when torn up revealed the carcasses of nineteen plague-stricken rats. Thereafter there could be no question of the source of infection. It meant that rats as agents in carrying contagion must be exterminated.

#### TRAPPING BY WHOLESALE.

The attack upon rats followed four main lines. In the first place the animals were trapped. It was not promiscuous trapping, but systematic and accurate. From each district headquarters foremen and laborers armed with traps went out every morning, while upon a map on the wall of their particular headquarters pins showed where the individual bands were skirmishing. At the outset rats were caught at the rate of 13,000 per week. Now rat-catchers, whose enthusiasm is intense, are decrying the fact that they have wrought such havoc in the rat population that their present rate is only 4200 for each week's catch, and it is becoming more and more difficult to find the rodents, because their numbers are so diminished. Daily the men empty their traps, and the captured rats are immersed in bichloride of mercury, which kills both the rodent and its parasites. Then, immediately, the rats are sent to the laboratory under the combined charge of a skilled pathologist and an expert bacteriologist, both of whom are graduates of the Washington Hygienic Laboratory. There each rat is scientifically examined, and if it is found to be plague-infected the tag is read to find out where, when, and by whom that rodent was caught. The district headquarters whence the rat came is notified by telephone and ordered to clean out the plague there located,—to clean it out by fumigating the special source of the disease and by giving the four contiguous blocks a thorough sanitary overhauling. For fear the 'phone message should chance to go astray, written orders also are mailed to the district commander, and it is made certain that the plague cannot spread from that particular spot.

The greatest advance that has been made



THE DAY'S CATCH OF A SINGLE BAND OF WORKERS.

(After immersion in a tub of bichloride of mercury the rats are removed from a trap and tagged "for sending" to the "ratorium.")

in this war upon pestilence has come in the treatment of plague-infected rodents with the same scrutiny as is given human plague cases. Heretofore, the human cases alone have been observed with a view to stopping the contagion. Now, where there is found to have been any contact with infected rats an eight-day watch is kept to stop any possible development of the disease. From a sanitary standpoint, whether human or rat, the plague cases are treated exactly alike. In addition to this, all trapped rats are skinned and microscopically examined. The skinning is done by laboratory assistants who started as raw recruits but have become so fired with the enthusiasm of their leaders that some of them skin an average of 500 rats a day, and are now so expert that they can distinguish an infected one with the naked eye. But each rodent is examined under microscope by two scientists, who make cultures and determine definitely which ones are infected. Five varieties of rats have been found in San Francisco: (1) the big gray Norway rat (*mus Norvegicus*), which is commonest; (2) the brown Indian rat (*mus rattus*); (3) the red rat (*mus Alexandrinus*); (4) the house mouse (*mus musculus*), and (5) a rare hybrid cross between (1) and (2).

Certain of the rats, instead of being killed by immersion in bichloride of mercury, are chloroformed. This of course also kills the rat's fleas, which are later combed out of its

fur. Then the fleas so got are preserved in phials of alcohol, each phial containing the parasites of a single rodent. This is done for the studying of the fleas, which carry the germ of plague from rats to humans, and also because of the supposition that the number of fleas per rat is important in relation to the virulence of epidemic among humans, since a flea will not ordinarily leave a living body unless crowded off by the excessive number of other fleas upon the same body; by this hypothesis the seasonal prevalence of pestilence can be explained. The fleas so found are studied by an expert entomologist, who classifies them and determines what has been their part in the spread of plague. Of the three forms of plague, that which appeared in San Francisco, the "bubonic," is contracted through the skin, and a germ-laden flea quickly infects its victim. Five varieties of fleas have been found upon rats in San Francisco: (1) sand fleas (*pulex irritans*); (2) rat fleas (*ceratophyllus fasciatus*); (3) mouse fleas (*ctenopsylla musculi*), (4) dog fleas (*ctenophalus canis*), and (5) the plague fleas of India (*pulex cheopis*). About 10,000 fleas were so identified. Among these the proportion ran: *ceratophyllus fasciatus*, 68.07 per cent. (its host being the *mus Norvegicus*); *pulex cheopis*, 21.36 per cent.; *pulex irritans*, 5.57 per cent.; *ctenopsylla musculi*, 4.48 per cent., and *ctenophalus canis*, 52 per cent. These figures bear out the contention that the *cera-*

*tophyllus fasciatus* is the germ-carrying flea of America, where '80 per cent. of the fleas belong to this species.

Attacking the plague with this accurate aim, the worst danger spots of the disease were very speedily located and put into a sanitary condition. In one place, where not even a basement existed to harbor the rats, thirteen infected ones were caught. Their nest was traced to an adjoining yard, where an innocent-appearing lumber pile screened masses of decayed refuse. Needless to say the yard was immediately cleared and disinfected. Again, in a rather prepossessing residence both rat and human cases of plague appeared. Here the rodents were discovered reveling in garbage carelessly thrown under the house, an accumulation of garbage which it took ten days to burn. Most menacing of all was the appearance of plague in the markets. In one nine infected rats were found within a week's time. The owner of the market became very much wrought up and anxiously fulfilled every direction for freeing his place of pestilence. He concreted all his floors to drive the rodents away, and installed sanitary chicken-coops to prevent their getting any food; the authorities thoroughly cleaned the four blocks next contiguous, and to-day there is not a safer market, sanitarily, in the city. Yet the sureness of this plan of attacking plague would have been nullified but for the treatment of rat cases with the same attention as the human ones received.

#### SYSTEMATIC USE OF POISON.

Parallel to this method of trapping rats ran a systematic plan for poisoning them. Bands of men in the various districts set out each morning armed with buckets of poisoned bread which had been cut into cubes. They sought out the rat strongholds and laid the poison about, making a definite record of the amounts and places in which it was set. Excessive care had to be taken that the poison was placed where only rodents would find it. Later, visits to these places showed how much of the poison had been taken, and hence as a conclusion how many rats had been killed. The poisoners within a district would start at one end of their allotted area and, setting their bait for the rodents, move gradually toward the other end till they had covered the whole district systematically. Yet, many as were the rats exterminated through trapping and poisoning, these methods proved unavailing, because the breeding rate of rats beats any such modes of attacking them.

#### ATTACKING THE RATS' FOOD SUPPLY.

Since both trapping and poisoning failed as weapons to rid the city of rodents, others had to be resorted to. Thus came the third way of killing rats, which was by starvation. The plague fighters attacked the rats' food supply. Not only must the existing sources of food be cleaned out, but any possibility of refuse again collecting where rodents might get at it must be prevented. Of course, this meant care in disposing of garbage. It also meant work for the authorities carrying on the campaign to impress upon people everywhere the necessity of using sanitary garbage cans. Records show that more than 75,000 such metal cans, provided with tight-fitting lids, have been installed. Considering what a number of ordinarily cleanly housekeepers use cans of this type anyway, the fact that 75,000 additional ones are now in use typifies the thoroughness with which these men have gone about their work. In a single one of the districts into which the city had been divided for the war of sanitation 12,000 new cans were brought into use; in District 1, covering 100 blocks, the number reached 4172, or 41.72 new metal garbage cans for each block. One can hardly emphasize too strongly the significance of these figures in exemplifying the completeness which marked the enforcing of detail in the work done by Drs. Blue and Rucker and those under them. Getting people to dispose of their garbage in this way was but a detail in the real assault upon the rats' food supply. For instance, entrances to all markets had to be screened, sanitary chicken-coops installed, stables had to be provided with metal-lined feed and refuse bins, and the historic function of the rodent to remove waste products has had to be undertaken by the citizens themselves.

In many cases stable owners and others have refused to do their share in the plague fight. Very noteworthy in this regard is the struggle between the authorities and the proprietors of certain hog-pens on the outskirts of San Francisco. Beneath the flooring of those hog-pens refuse has been accumulating for years, and rats fattened and thrived upon it. Every demand that these sinks of filth be cleaned was met with rebuff from the owners. Finally a band of laborers from one of the district headquarters went into the place and tore out the flooring. They uncovered beneath the very pen in which hogs were fattened for choice pork a mass of rotting refuse, the value of which, when turned into





THE "RATATORIUM," WHERE TAGGED RATS ARE SKINNED PREPARATORY TO MICROSCOPIC EXAMINATION FOR INFECTION.

(These men can individually skin more than 500 rats a day.)

fertilizer, has been estimated at \$30,000.

This, also, exhibits the determined methods pursued in cleaning up the city. Where the inspectors saw that certain places needed cleansing, the proprietors of those places were requested to do the necessary work, and if they ignored repeated requests accompanied by warnings they suddenly discovered a stronger hand cleaning out and tidying up in spite of vain protests.

#### MAKING BUILDINGS RAT-PROOF.

As an inevitable corollary to destroying the rat's food supply came the wiping out of its habitation. Here, again, careful investigation was followed by drastic measures. Justified by the realization that rats could not exist in San Francisco without food and homes, no stone was left unturned in the purpose of making this city rat-proof. To each district headquarters was attached a storeroom stocked with tools necessary for this branch of the campaign. Each inspector turned in reports upon specially prepared blanks requiring entries under heads that covered every phase of the work. Acting upon these reports, wrecking crews were furnished with proper tools and sent to help property owners to carry out the directions of Dr. Blue and his assistants, or after condemna-

tion proceedings by the board of health to do the work where the property owners refused compliance. Thus, where five stables abutted upon a space of eighty feet by twenty feet square, with a lodging-house near by, such a home for rats existed that two human and twenty-six rat cases of plague came inevitably. Drastic measures had to be taken. Result: three two-story houses destroyed.

However, the plague fighters confined themselves to constructive principles wherever possible. The aim was to exclude rats from the home of man by making houses rat-proof. Three chief lines were followed in accomplishing this: (1) Basements or ground floors were required to be made of some material impervious to rats. Concrete proved the best adapted for this purpose. Also, it necessitated the replacing of wooden sidewalks with concrete ones. Up to June 30, 1908, 3,979,864 square feet of concrete has been laid in District 12 alone, according to directions issued by those attacking plague, while in the smallest of these sanitary districts has been laid 795,596 square feet of concrete. Throughout the city the work has attained a similar standard of thoroughness. Furthermore, (2) buildings had to be properly screened near the ground level so that they would not be accessible to rodents.



Screening was adopted especially in the cases of stables, where the walls have been concreted for two and one-half feet above the ground. In a way stables have been a target for these sanitary measures, since they almost more than all other places attract rodents. Over 200 rats were trapped in one stable, and, incidentally, the owners objected strenuously to the orders they received to clean up. Yet, considering that the conditions in San Francisco after the fire were adverse to sanitation, it was imperative that places that could be made sanitary should be made so without any delay. Hence, the ordinance which the Board of Supervisors passed at the request of the plague-fighters insisting upon sanitary regulations for stables. It required not only concrete floors and side walls for two and one-half feet above the ground, but also that sewer connections be of concrete and that manure and feed bins be metal-lined. Several thousand stables have thus been made rat-proof, and in some districts every stable has fulfilled every requirement of the ordinance. One of the districts had 1011 stables. Of these 586 fulfilled every requirement of the ordinance; 159 complied in all but some single minor detail; 46 have so far complied only in part, and 220 have been vacated. The significance of these figures points out that of 1011 stables those fulfilling ordinance regulations in full or with a single exception, together with those vacated, rep-

resent in all 965 abated nuisances of this sort. Incidentally, in another district, 17,750 nuisances were abated up to June 30. Finally, it was infection coming from a stable that led to the instituting of the last means of proofing houses against the intrusion of rodents.

One of the most persistent plague spots was at Lobos Square, where a refugee camp had been located after the fire. The camp itself, organized under the supervision of federal troops, was of a perfectly sanitary type. Yet here occurred fifteen human cases of plague. By tracking the rats it was found that a nearby stable served as a feeding and breeding place for them and as a source of the spreading of contagion in that neighborhood. The stable was cleaned at once. Plague cases continued. It was a problem where they now came from. The whole thing proved very simple: infected rats had left the stable and taken refuge under the houses of the sanitary camp, dying there. So long as they lived and the number of germ-carrying fleas on each rat was not excessive, the dwellers of the camp stood in no danger. But when an infected rat beneath a house had died, its parasites deserted the dead body to find a living one, carrying the disease with them. Therefore, to prevent the rodents finding a retreat beneath the houses, Dr. Blue ordered all the structures raised eighteen inches or two feet above the ground, thereby



SKINNED RATS READY FOR THE BACTERIOLOGIST.

(Flypaper on the walls shows one of the many precautions to prevent contagion being carried away from these rats by flies.)



FUMIGATING PREMISES IN WHICH PLAGUE HAD EVINCED ITSELF.

(A spray exterminating fleas and flea-eggs was freely shot about; oakum served to caulk up cracks and crevices that germ-laden fleas might not escape; the walls, made airtight with bands of paper, confined the disinfecting fumes, and pots of burning sulphur destroyed all germs as well as germ-carrying insects in the place.)

making the rats' home accessible to cats and dogs. Thereafter not a single plague case occurred in this vicinity, and thus came about the third method of rat-proofing, by elevating frame structures.

Carrying through these plans of campaign was a big work, a work big with little obstacles to overcome. The process followed was simple enough: an inspector, told off to a definite section, visited all the premises in that section; if he found conditions bad, he left a written statement to that effect; if the declaration and directions of the statement went unheeded, a second one accompanied by a warning went to the property holders; in case the latter persisted in ignoring these, condemnation proceedings through the city Board of Health and frequently police court action ensued to compel a cleaning up. Bakeries supported their quota of rodents, and it was not always easy to make the bakers provide against them. Almost as bad as the worst places to be dealt with were the rag dens. One of these turned out its one human and two rat cases. But the State Board of Health co-operated with the federal plague-fighters, so that now all traffic in old rags is regulated on sanitary lines, and in addition no manure can be shipped out of the city but such as comes from rat-proof stables.

#### SEWERS, WAREHOUSES, AND WHARVES MADE RAT-PROOF.

It is patently impossible to describe every bypath covered in this campaign. Only certain of the main roads followed in attaining the objective of a city freed from plague have been enumerated. For instance, the rat-proofing of sewers which had been damaged by earthquake stands almost as an independent encounter with the epidemic. Still it was none the less important, since sewers are the recognized highway of rodents, deprived of which they cannot invest a city so quickly and completely as they can when able to scurry unhindered from place to place. All the crevices in the sewers where the rats could feed, hide, or breed had to be closed with cement and the sewers themselves made absolutely inaccessible. Again, warehouses are harboring-places for rats. To-day the warehouses of San Francisco, built of reinforced concrete in accordance with ordinance regulations, stand as veritable monoliths, into which the entry of the rodent is impossible. Finally, across the wharves rats have heretofore found access to San Francisco, and beyond doubt it was across the old wooden wharves that rats from ships which had visited some distant plague center carried pesti-

lence into the city. Now it has been planned to build stone and concrete quays, to cost \$30,000,000, in order to prevent rodents from ever again infecting San Francisco,—and the results will justify that outlay, since a recurrence of plague would threaten San Francisco's prosperity, just as going into quarantine would shatter its commercial supremacy. That was one of the big things the plague fighters had to see, but so broad, so extensive and complete was this warfare upon plague, one must in telling of it omit many of the big things. It is simpler to confine one's self to the actual, immediate fighting.

#### IMPROVED CONDITIONS AND METHODS OF TREATMENT.

Side by side with exterminating rats and locating and cleaning the sources of infection ran the caring for those who had contracted the disease. No proper place for treating them existed. The old pesthouse was itself a monstrous culture of germs. Luckily it was burned to the ground, and an isolation hospital of the most improved type erected along lines suggested by Dr. Blue. This new hospital has been built to be kept perfectly clean of all possible infection. In addition, a sheet-iron fence six feet high entirely isolates the hospital, so that nothing can get either in or out except by the gates, which are "tight." This fence is interesting in that to make it perfectly "tight" it is sunken two and one-half feet into the ground and rests upon a concrete foundation, while its top is turned over to make it unscalable by smaller animals. Here trained nurses and skilled physicians give patients the best of care. At no time after the federal authorities took hold of the situation was there hit-or-miss work, for every case was worked down scientifically by experts. Why, to ascertain beyond any doubt, three special inspectors of the dead were appointed, and not a single burial took place unless the body had been viewed, the exact cause of death definitely ascertained, and an official permit issued. Everything was accurate. It is accurately known that up to January 30, 1908, when pestilence last attacked humans, and when the control of the epidemic became absolute, there had been 159 cases of plague, and of these but seventy-seven succumbed. It was competent treatment alone which kept the mortality down. During a nearly similar period, in the Punjab, 309,074 had succumbed out of 342,217 cases of the plague. The salient point is

that when the death-rate among victims of this disease was 90.60 per cent. in India, it was only 48.42 per cent. in San Francisco.

#### CO-OPERATION OF THE PUBLIC.

Then when the greatest part of the task was accomplished, and when the danger of a panic was passed because the worst features of the epidemic had been overcome, Dr. Blue instituted his campaign to educate the public. Previously the work had not received much publicity. Now arose the need of having people understand what had taken place and how they should avoid any recurrence of plague. Only an effective campaign of education could make permanently useful the results already achieved. Hence, Dr. Blue addressed business men, and Dr. Rucker went the rounds of the improvement clubs, each setting forth actual conditions and urging that the work go on to make the city rat-proof for all time, as it must be to maintain its dominating position as gateway to the Orient. But the early days of spreading this propaganda were disheartening ones. The State Medical Society co-operated with the federal officers and called a public meeting, having sent out 600 invitations; just sixty people attended that meeting. Then Mayor Taylor appointed a Citizens' Health Committee of twenty-five members, twelve of whom were doctors. This committee, having Homer S. King as president; L. M. King, secretary, and Chas. C. Moore, chairman of the executive committee, succeeded in rousing popular enthusiasm so generally that meetings began to be held all over the city, the executive officer alone addressing seven in one day. It created a fund of \$150,000, and did excellent volunteer work in cleaning certain parts of the city. On March 21, 1908, a street banquet was held in celebration of the cleaning of the commission-house district, which had formerly supported more rats than any other one district. For this banquet tables were set in the middle of the street and 500 guests attended, including the federal officers, city officials, health authorities, prominent citizens, and members of various women's clubs. Literally it proved that the streets were "clean enough to eat from." A banner was flung out which read: "We have cleaned up. Go thou and do likewise!" The whole affair was unique and, in the tenseness of good-will, typically San Franciscan.

The federal officers who directed the plague war are emphatic in telling of their

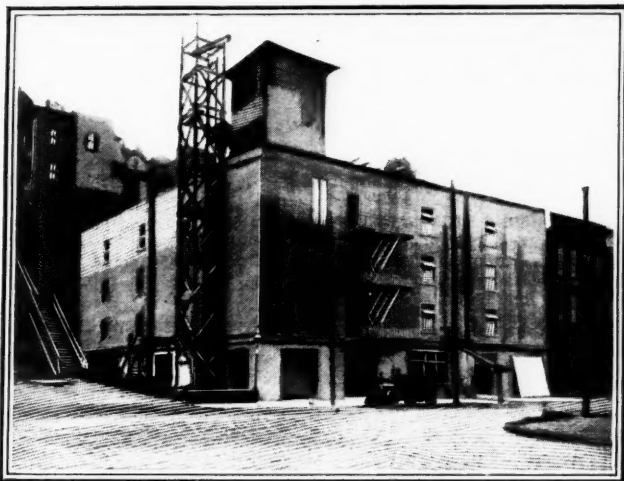
appreciation of the aid given by this Citizens' Health Committee. Nor do they fail to point to the valuable co-operation of the city Board of Health, which assisted through backing condemnation proceedings, and of the Board of Supervisors, which passed ordinances of sanitation and included special appropriations in its budget, at the same time offering a reward of 10 cents for every rat caught by volunteers. There was further help that came from the outside. The Quarantine Station, under Passed Assistant Surgeon W. C. Hobdy, did its share to prevent foreign ports from cutting off communication with San Francisco. To this end every vessel leaving the city was fumigated, even ferryboats and the river steamers going to Sacramento. In one month 1500 boats were so fumigated. Everywhere was co-operation, co-operation on a grand scale.

The State of California had its work to do as well. Nine cases of plague appeared outside of San Francisco, across the bay in Oakland. That meant that wholly to eradicate all danger of an epidemic other places must be cleaned. The towns from Martinez to Hayward, including the cities of Berkeley, Oakland, and Alameda, were organized under Passed Assistant Surgeon J. D. Long, who was detailed to the work by Dr. Blue. There, too, the campaign was pushed strenuously forward to make the communities proof against any recurrence of pestilence.

#### BRILLIANT GENERALSHIP.

Altogether it was a very big organization. When, within the next couple of months, the work will have been wholly completed, Drs. Blue and Rucker and the officers of their corps will return to headquarters; but one wonders about the men who served as non-commissioned officers and privates in this army. After almost a year's training they have become experts in sanitary warfare. Theirs has been a unique schooling.

Now this great, silent campaign is almost over. It has been generaled and officered as capably as any war ever fought. What has



REINFORCED-CONCRETE WAREHOUSE, A VERITABLE MONOLITH, INACCESSIBLE TO RATS.

(For a time the port of Ancon in the Canal Zone insisted upon a certificate with all imports from San Francisco showing that they had been stored in rat-proof warehouses; otherwise the imported cargoes were forbidden to be discharged.)

been accomplished by Dr. Blue and those under him could be accomplished by none but the most competent of men. There can be no reservation in the credit due Dr. Blue. His is a quiet nature, energized by a tremendous yet kindly determination. Throughout the whole of his work he modestly suppressed his own personality (so far as such a personality may be suppressed); he was there to accomplish something, and his whole power, mental and physical, concentrated itself upon that fact. Contemplating the goal of a city invulnerable to epidemics, he would reiterate emphatically, "We'll get there if it takes ten years!" The key to his nature lies in that "We'll get there!" Had Dr. Blue desired, with his authority, to forge ahead, attaining results, regardless of others, he could have quarantined San Francisco and cost the city millions of dollars in commercial prestige. But it was not "I'll get there!" It was "We'll get there!" and he sought to bring the citizens of San Francisco into the ranks of his workers. Fortunately he had as executive officer Dr. Rucker, whose indefatigable abilities as an organizer made it possible for those in charge to direct the efforts of as many as would ally themselves to the cause. The people came around; they carried out the plans of the federal authorities. They have made San Francisco the most sanitary city in the world.



## TWO SOUTH AMERICAN PRESIDENTS.

BY CHARLES M. PEPPER.

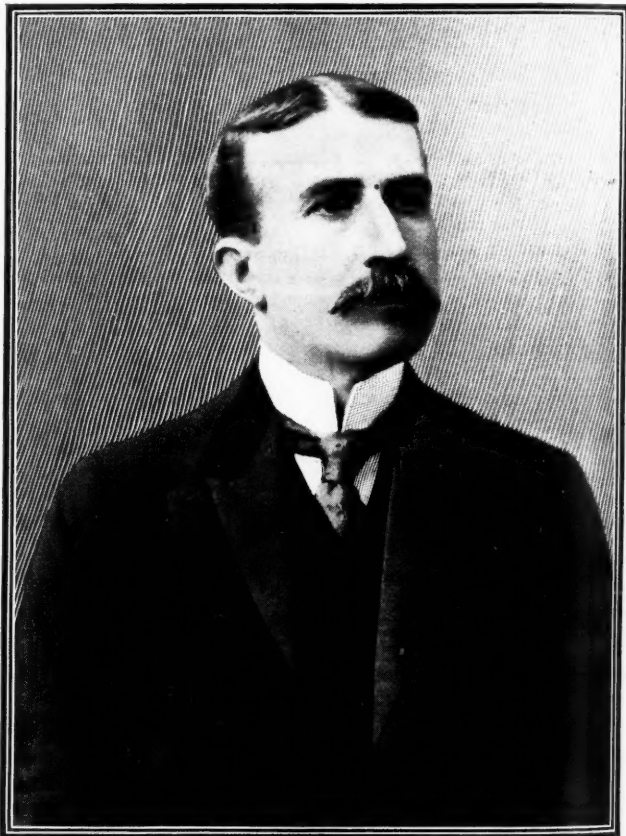
(Foreign Trade Commissioner, United States Department of Commerce and Labor.)

[While not so large as Brazil and Argentina, or so active commercially as Chile, the other South American countries are developing at a remarkable rate, and there is much of interest to Americans in current history as it is being made in Peru, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Paraguay. Mr. Pepper's experience and observation all over the continent have been unusual.—THE EDITOR.]

WHILE the United States is in the midst of a campaign to elect a President, two South American Republics, Bolivia and Peru, are entering upon fresh presidential terms. In the case of Peru, a new chief magistrate, Señor Augusto B. Leguia, has been inaugurated. In Bolivia, Col. Ismael Montes, the executive in office, has been continued ad interim for a year pending the choice of a successor to Dr. Fernando E. Guachalla, the President-elect, who died a fortnight before the day of inauguration.

Both Señor Leguia and Colonel Montes have been identified with the forward commercial and development policy which is now so dominant on the West Coast. This is significant of the future.

Bolivian foreign commerce has doubled within less than a decade, and it now amounts to more than \$30,000,000 annually. The United States, which formerly was not credited on the official returns with anything, although it shipped some flour and cottons, now sells goods in Bolivia valued at \$2,500,000 a year, chiefly railway material and mining machinery. Peruvian international trade in ten years has gone up from \$22,000,000 to \$55,000,000 annually. Of this commerce between \$13,000,000 and \$14,000,000 is with the United States and \$10,000,000 of



SEÑOR AGUSTO B. LEGUIA, PRESIDENT OF PERU.

it is through the port of New York. The past few months have seen a large increase.

Next to the Malay Straits, Bolivia is the world's chief source of the tin supply. In 1899 the output of the mines was 4300 tons, as against 44,000 tons in the Straits Settlement; in 1906, 17,000 tons, as against 57,000 tons in the Straits. The tin mines of Bolivia have been worked only superficially

and many known deposits are yet untouched. Since 1873 the Pulacayo silver mines at Huanchaca have added \$125,000,000 to the world's wealth. The Potosi silver fields, exploited by the Spaniards for centuries, have centuries of fresh exploitation before them by modern methods. The Corocoro copper district and the unexploited district equal in richness any copper deposits on the southern continent. The Lake Titicaca oil fields are rich. Such statements are made by prospectors and mine boomers everywhere, but in the case of Bolivia they have title to respect because they are the substance of the reports made by mining experts in the employment of hard-headed American capitalists. The values of the leading mineral exports of Bolivia in 1906 are known to be approximately these: Tin, \$18,000,000; copper, \$1,250,000; silver, \$2,000,000; bismuth, \$750,000.

The Peruvian mining output in 1906 amounted to \$12,600,000, to which copper contributed \$4,980,000 and silver \$4,865,000. In 1907 the copper output was largely increased by the Cerro de Pasco mines beginning shipments of copper bars from their smelter, and this American company is now shipping to New York copper in bars to the amount of 13,000 to 14,000 tons annually.

These items of foreign trade and of mineral products exported are a measure of the importance of commercial relations in the policies of the respective governments, and they are themselves suggestive of the importance of presidents who appreciate foreign commerce and the development which makes it possible.

#### THE PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGNS.

The elections took place last spring. The writer was in both countries during the campaigns and had the opportunity to observe the tendencies which were developing and also the personality of the candidates.

There was a significant sameness in both Bolivia and Peru. The campaign trend, so far as there was discussion, related to internal policies of the material sort, to the inducements which might be offered foreign capital for the working out of the material policies, to peace, and to cultivating the good-will of the United States. I never have known a campaign in a South American republic in which there was so little enunciation of the abstractions of which Latin-American statesmen are so fond, and so much effort to impress practical questions on the electors. In

the demonstrations in honor of the candidates, while their virtues were eulogized by enthusiastic partisans, it was rare to listen to an Apostrophe to Liberty. Instead, the voters were told what the candidates could do for the country and what the country expected him to do.

It was universally recognized that Peruvians and Bolivians are in what has come to be called the "Root era." There was also talk of the Panama period. This was the sequel of Secretary Root's visit and the thoroughness with which in his public addresses and on other occasions the American Secretary of State had emphasized the fact that the Panama Canal is for South America as well as for the United States.

Why an interior country such as Bolivia, situated in the fastness of the Andes, should have an interest in the Panama Canal may not be apparent to those who are ignorant of the geography and the geology of South America. But Bolivia as a storehouse of mineral wealth finds the shortest course for its minerals to the Pacific Coast. Its existing commerce through Chilean and Peruvian seaports is 90 per cent. a West Coast commerce. Already it has felt the stimulus of Panama in the prospect of lower freight for its ores by the cheaper transportation which is possible through shortening the route. When the canal is once opened it will share all the benefits as much as if its own borders stretched along the coast.

#### PRESSING NEED OF RAILROADS.

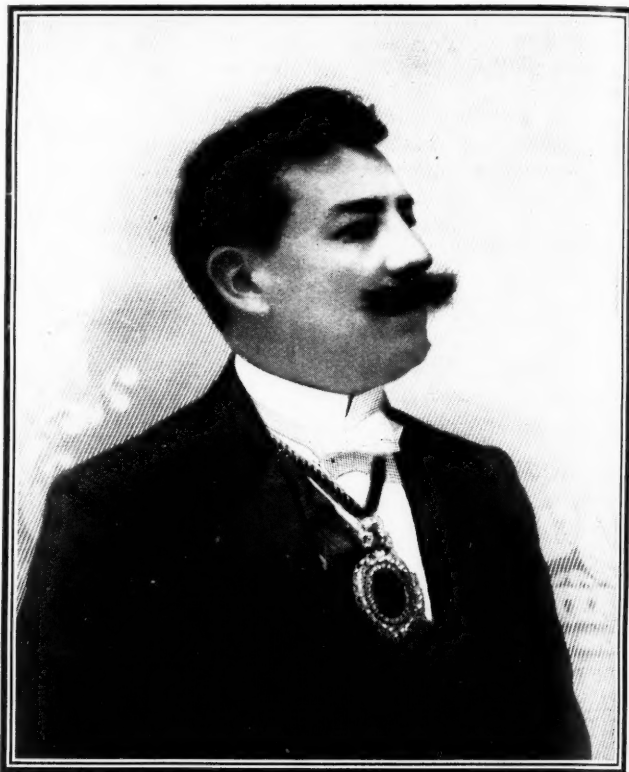
For the development of Bolivia's vast mineral resources transportation is the prime factor. Railways mean that many new mines can be opened up, modern machinery imported and installed in them, and ores freighted to the coast at a charge which will leave something for mine owner and mine worker.

The construction of the Bolivian railways was inaugurated by General José Pando when he was President. Huge as Bolivia is, nobody knew it better than General Pando, for he had traversed its mountain passes and its river regions from the Amazon affluents to the summits of the Cordilleras. The base line of his railway policy was the pan-American link from the border of Argentina across the country north and south to Lake Titicaca. President Pando's first measure was to send a banker and a former resident of New York, Mr. Ignacio Calderon, to the United States as Minister, with instructions to secure American capital if possible, but if this were

not practicable to proceed to Europe. Bolivia had \$12,000,000 cash capital, of which \$10,000,000 had been received from Brazil as indemnity for giving up the disputed Acre rubber territory. With this as a groundwork, and with the knowledge that the building of the canal assured the permanency of the United States' influence, New York bankers were interested. After protracted negotiations Speyer & Co. and the National City Bank formed a syndicate, in which other financial interests joined, and contributed \$15,000,000. With this joint capital of \$27,000,000 the building of a thousand-mile railroad system began. It meant heavy investments in the tin, copper, and silver mines, and, later, probably the opening up of agricultural regions to settlement.

Before the negotiations could be concluded President Pando was succeeded by Col. Ismael Montes, who had been a member of his cabinet and had accompanied him in the military expeditions to the Acre country. President Montes also knew Bolivia very well and knew its needs in the way of a transportation system. As a political leader he had handled many difficult questions and had shown much tact in securing the co-operation of the Bolivian Congress, in which the jealousies and rivalries of localities and some distrust of foreign influence had been manifested. As a man of affairs he pleased the American railway builders by his blunt business methods and his quickness in grasping the practical points of railway construction. It has been their testimony that they could not have found in the United States his equal for promptness and for ability in mastering technical subjects.

President Montes was to have been succeeded by a man in sympathy with his administration and with whom he had been closely associated in the political struggles which



SEÑOR ISMAEL MONTES, PRESIDENT OF BOLIVIA.

overturned the reactionary factions and opened the way for the development policy.

Some years ago, in toiling up one of the steep streets of La Paz, I noted a modest sign, "F. Guachalla, Abogado," and climbed a stone stairway to greet my old colleague in the Pan-American Conference at Mexico. He was, however, absent on a diplomatic mission. In the meantime I learned something of his political history. As a young lawyer he had been an enthusiastic Liberal. He had joined General Pando in the political revolution which upset the reactionary administration of President Alfonso. Then after active participation in public affairs at home he had been accredited as Minister to the United States, to Mexico, and to Venezuela. After presenting his credentials in Washington he had gone to Venezuela in order, if possible, as the representative of a disinterested South American country, to smooth out some of the difficulties between Venezuela and its neighbors. Later, Doctor Guachalla represented Bolivia in the Mexi-

can Pan-American Conference and was prominent in the debates. Then after a short period again in Washington he was transferred to the Argentine Republic in order to provide for the arbitration of the boundary dispute with Peru. From Argentina the natural transition was to Brazil, where, in connection with Doctor Pinilla, the Minister, he negotiated the Acre treaty. From Rio Janeiro Doctor Guachalla proceeded to London, and while Minister to Great Britain he also represented his country as one of the delegates to The Hague.

In the fall of 1907 Dr. Guachalla retired from his diplomatic position and returned to Bolivia to direct in person his campaign for the presidency. This he managed with force and skill, placating some unfriendly elements, conciliating old opponents, and securing the support of ex-President Pando, while holding that of President Montes, so that in May of the present year he was elected with scarcely a show of opposition.

After the shock which was experienced by those persons familiar with Bolivian affairs when the news came from La Paz of the death of Dr. Guachalla on July 25, a fortnight before he was to be inaugurated, there was a natural curiosity as to the succession. There were two Vice-Presidents-elect, Señores Eufonio Vizcarra and Fidel Valdés, from different parts of the country, who had been chosen on the ticket with Dr. Guachalla, and who, if once inaugurated, would have filled the succession in order. The Latin American republics, unlike the United States, do not minimize the importance of this office, on paper at least. Most of them not only make provision for two Vice-Presidents, but also provide for the actual delegation of power by the President, who sometimes takes advantage of this authority and for a period permits the Vice-Presidents to exercise the functions of the chief executive.

But Bolivia, while fully provided against the contingency of a vacancy in the office of President, was apparently also not without provision for a prospective vacancy such as that caused by the death of the President-elect. The dispatches from La Paz stated that under the interpretation of the constitution President Montes would continue in office for a year, or during the interregnum pending the election of a new President. This was agreeable to the people at large, with whom his administration is popular, and when the Bolivian Congress met in August there was no friction.

Large sums of foreign capital are ready for investment as the assurance grows of internal stability and of good relations with the neighboring countries. How good those relations are appears when it is known that the delimitation of boundaries with Brazil is going on under terms of the Petropolis treaty; that under the arbitration of the Argentine Republic the boundary dispute with Peru is approaching settlement; that the long-standing boundary dispute with Paraguay is ceasing to be a cause of friction, while both Chile and Peru have made satisfactory treaties with Bolivia for the use of their seaports and have foregone the special concessions given them in the matter of discriminating duties.

The new international status is a more significant tribute to the country's progress. For many years the United States was the only country, outside of South America, which accredited a Minister to Bolivia. After Secretary Root's visit to South America the Legation in Bolivia, was raised in the matter of salary to a dignified plane, and the influence of the United States, which the zeal and intelligence of Minister Sorsby had been fostering, was further strengthened. Now Great Britain, Germany and France have accredited resident ministers to Bolivia because their interests require such diplomatic representation.

#### PERU'S REMARKABLE PROGRESS.

Peru began its period of preparation for the Root era and for Panama long years back. The period may be said to have commenced in the early '70's of the past century, when Henry Meiggs, out of the guano profits, built the engineering wonders known as the Central and the Southern Railways from the coast over the Andes. There was further preparation when, after the last revolution, in 1895, the aspirations to secure political stability were supplemented by a determined and successful effort to maintain monetary stability. Peru was placed on the gold basis under the presidency of General Pierola.

Then the business influence made itself felt in administration and in policies. The initial American investment in the Cerro de Pasco district, which, including the mines, the smelter, and the railway, now approximates \$20,000,000 of actual expenditure, was made in this period. The tendency to recognize the civil as distinct from the military elements in the government was emphasized when in 1903 Miguel Candamo,



who had been for many years president of the Lima Chamber of Commerce, was elected President of the republic. He began his administration with various measures of a business character tending both to encourage local development and to invite foreign capital. One of the measures which he urged on the Congress and which was passed was that for the creation of a permanent and exclusive railway fund. President Candamo died within a year after his inauguration, and though a period of political uncertainty followed there was no "upset." José Pardo, who had been Minister of Foreign Relations, succeeded him. Señor Pardo was a member of one of the strong families of Peru, with several brothers prominent in business affairs and he himself a sugar planter. Under his administration further American capital has gone into Peruvian mines, including \$3,000,000 in the Rio Blanco smelter. The irritating dispute between the government and the Peruvian Corporation of London, which had taken over the state railways under a fifty-five years' lease in lieu of the national debt, was settled, and the distrust of English capital regarding Peru as a field for investment was removed.

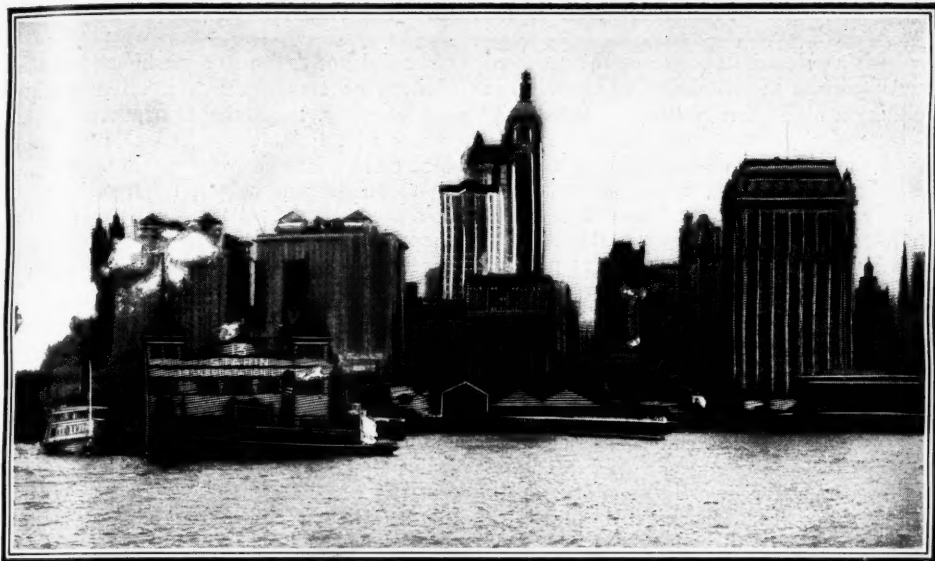
In all the fiscal and economic policies of the past fifteen years there has been one prominent figure,—in the background at first, but gradually coming out till he was in the forefront. In 1903, when the government was anxious to do what it could to further the Pan-American railway project, it was at sea as to the means by which this could be done and the investment of foreign capital secured. My own suggestion was the enactment of a law setting aside permanent revenues, but I was not well enough informed to indicate from what source the revenues should come. The Secretary of the Treasury, quick as lightning, remarked, "We can get it from tobacco," and tobacco was made the basis of the legislation which is now yielding \$1,000,000 a year for railway purposes. This Secretary of the Treasury was Augusto B. Leguia, a young man of very keen intellect and much force of character. He had been, I was told, a bookkeeper on a sugar plantation and had saved money out of his salary in order to go to a commercial school and learn English. Then he had dipped into several sorts of business, including insurance, had taken a hand in politics, and had held some minor government positions in which his industry and his aggressiveness had recommended him to the cabinet ministers.

#### THE CAREER OF PRESIDENT LEGUIA.

While young Leguia was soliciting insurance it is related of him that he decided to make a visit to the head office in New York. On the way up the coast he stopped at Guayaquil and one or two other points, and "wrote" a million dollars. On reaching New York he sought an interview with the president of the company, but that busy man, after keeping him waiting all day in the outer office, sent word that he would have to come again. The next day the patient young Peruvian was on hand and was again kept waiting. But not for long. He wrote a brief note and sent it in to the president. It was to the effect that he had written a million or so of extra insurance, but if this particular company's president hadn't time to see him within two minutes he could find another company which would take it. In half a minute he was admitted.

Señor Leguia remained in New York for some time and then returned to Peru to take a more active part in politics and in business. In the latter pursuit he became the head of one of the largest sugar companies. As Secretary of the Treasury he had to appear before the Congress frequently and defend his administration or urge legislation. The vigor and success with which he did this gave him fresh title to respect. The old leaders didn't like this pushing forward, but the young men were with Leguia, and his following in the Civilista party became dominant. The presidents to be were in its ranks, and in course of time it came to be understood that Señor Leguia would succeed President Pardo. He retired from the cabinet in order to make his canvass. His platform was a long one, but there were many questions which needed consideration, and there was no lack of directness in the manner in which his views were outlined. Irrigation and European immigration were two main points. His declarations were especially friendly toward the foreign interests domiciled in Peru.

There was a censorious opposition which, through an aggressive newspaper, put up a "nasty" campaign against him, full of personalities and innuendoes. But the opposition, though it had some strong men with patriotic records, did not succeed in concentrating on a candidate. The country enters on the period of the new presidency with the Panama Canal sentiment paramount and with a self-made man of business training at the head of affairs.



THE SKYSCRAPERS OF LOWER NEW YORK CITY AS SEEN FROM THE NORTH RIVER.

(Recent tall buildings have changed the sky-line materially. Trinity Church spire, which a quarter of a century ago was so conspicuous as to be a landmark from the lower bay, can be barely discerned on the extreme right of the picture.)

## TALL BUILDINGS AND THEIR PROBLEMS.

BY HERBERT T. WADE.

THE recent announcement that the first skyscraper to be erected in New York City was to be demolished to make room for a larger structure which would rise to a height of thirty-eight stories came at an interesting time, inasmuch as the present year has witnessed the completion in that city of several of the loftiest and largest structures known in the annals of architecture, while at the same time there have been filed with the building department of the city plans for office buildings even higher and greater than those which to-day stand out so prominently on the skyline of Manhattan. It is worth recalling that the first skeleton-construction building, from which the modern high office building has been evolved, dates back only to 1883, when the Home Insurance Company erected such a structure in Chicago. Following this pioneer effort at Chicago came the Rookery, supported by 150-foot vertical columns, and the Tacoma Building, fourteen stories in height and the first to carry its walls on the steel construction. In fact, it was soon realized by architects that by using steel columns and beams, terra-cotta arches

in place of the heavier brick, and speedy and safe elevators, strong, useful and serviceable buildings could be constructed to considerable height.

While the Chicago prototype was plain to the extreme in its rectangular austerity, yet when the skyscraper idea was introduced into New York architectural decoration and adornment were deemed desirable and accordingly added, so that to-day the tall building is as much entitled to esthetic consideration as any other form of structural design. But utility has been the governing consideration, and particularly in New York peculiar conditions have led to the construction of skyscrapers in such quantities that within less than two decades the appearance of the lower part of the city has been entirely transformed. But it must be remembered that these structures have been built under building regulations or codes where no limits of height have been provided, save in the case of tenements, and it must be borne in mind also that the impending adoption of a new or revised building code has been an important incentive toward the filing of plans

for such a colossal structure as the proposed new Equitable Life Building. Naturally, in building a high office building in such a city as New York, commercial considerations demand that it should be erected at a center where people congregate, and where, consequently, land values are extraordinarily high, and that it should return the maximum revenue by housing as many people as possible.

In other words, given a certain ground area, the problem is to erect a building to afford so many square feet of renting space, and to obtain this the building naturally must contain a certain number of stories and rise to the corresponding height. To the demands of real-estate owners architects and engineers have responded, so that to-day it seems almost vain to look for any limits either on the height or size of buildings if their future usefulness and earning capacity can be demonstrated, assuming of course that municipal regulations will impose no further restrictions than at present. Indeed, the engineer of the Singer Building, Mr. O. F. Semsch, in connection with the editor of the *Scientific American*, computed the height to which it would be possible to erect an office tower building under the present regulations, and it was found that a 150-storied structure rising to a height of 2000 feet was feasible according to the building regulations now in force in New York City, and with due consideration of modern engineering practice and theory. Such a structure is shown in the illustration. To-day the demand for offices in New York City seems to be fairly well met, and in the best situated and appointed of the modern high office buildings the floor rentals are figured at from \$2.50 to \$4 per square foot, with a maximum of about \$5.

Though it is realized that the unrestricted erection of skyscrapers in a great city cannot go on indefinitely, yet no scheme for the satisfactory regulation of such buildings so far proposed has met with universal approval. By going to greater heights the lower and ground floors, for which artificial illumination for the entire day must be provided in most cases, are made less desirable and useful, yet at the same time in many cities it is believed that the time has passed for a restriction based solely on height. In fact, it has been proposed by Mr. Ernest Flagg, the architect of the Singer Building, that so long as an entire plot is not covered there should be no limit to the height of a tower on a certain specified part, and that this right, where the

owner did not desire to avail himself of the privilege of erecting such a tower on his own property, might be transferred to the owners of adjoining lots, so that on each block there might be one or more towers rising to an extreme height, but restricted in their ground area. So many factors, both economic and practical, as well as esthetic, however, enter into the problem, that there seems but little hope of an early and satisfactory solution.

#### THE EVOLUTION OF A TYPE.

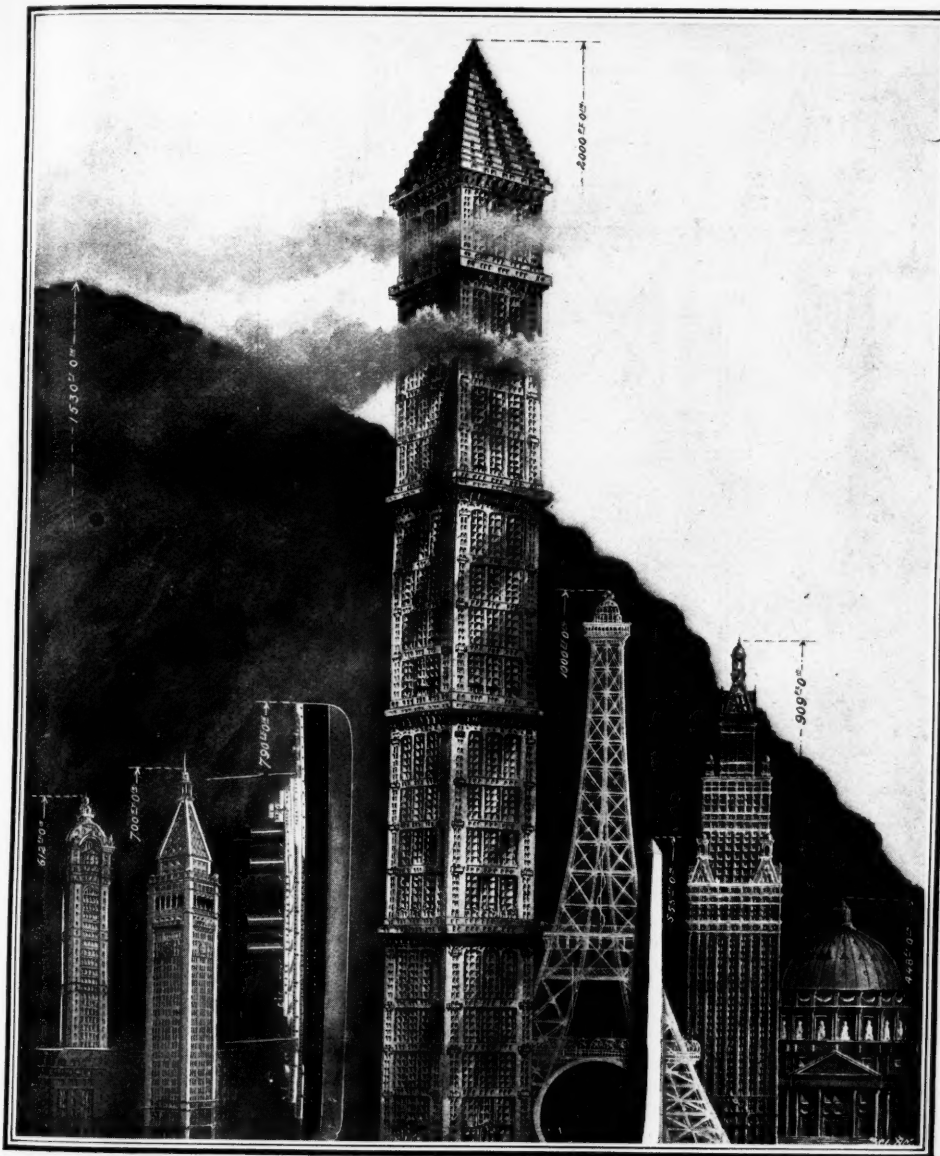
The skyscraper or tower building, in addition to extreme utility, possesses a beauty of its own that can be judged by the same canons that are applied to the older forms of construction. Furthermore, it may be seen that a distinct type has been evolved, and to this recent structures conform with substantial unanimity. An analysis of this type would reveal a massive basement, often of several stories and with an elaborate entrance showing considerable carving, above which successive stories rise in unbroken lines of windows and plain surfaces. On the top stories the decoration is concentrated and at the attic or the lantern of the tower is centered the upper adornment of the structure which is largely responsible for the individual character of the building.

#### AN ENGINEERING PROBLEM.

Whatever may be the general design of a modern high office building, its realization is essentially an engineering problem, for, as is well known, the modern skyscraper is a steel cage or skeleton structure fashioned of columns, beams, girders, and trusses of steel in a manner precisely similar to a cantilever bridge. Resting on a firm foundation, which now with extreme heights must go down to bedrock, the structure must carry not only floors and partitions but the exterior walls of brick, terra cotta, or stone. Furthermore, to the structural framework must be added wind-bracing, so that the entire surface exposed to the wind shall be able to withstand pressures far in excess of any it is likely to experience. The standard safety pressure for computing the wind-bracing is taken at thirty pounds to the square foot, which is in excess of that of a violent hurricane at sea or a gale of over seventy miles an hour.

#### IMPORTANCE OF THE FOUNDATION.

It will be obvious therefore that the foundation is the first and all important consid-



From the Scientific American.

Singer Building. Metropolitan Building. Lusitania.

2000-foot Building.

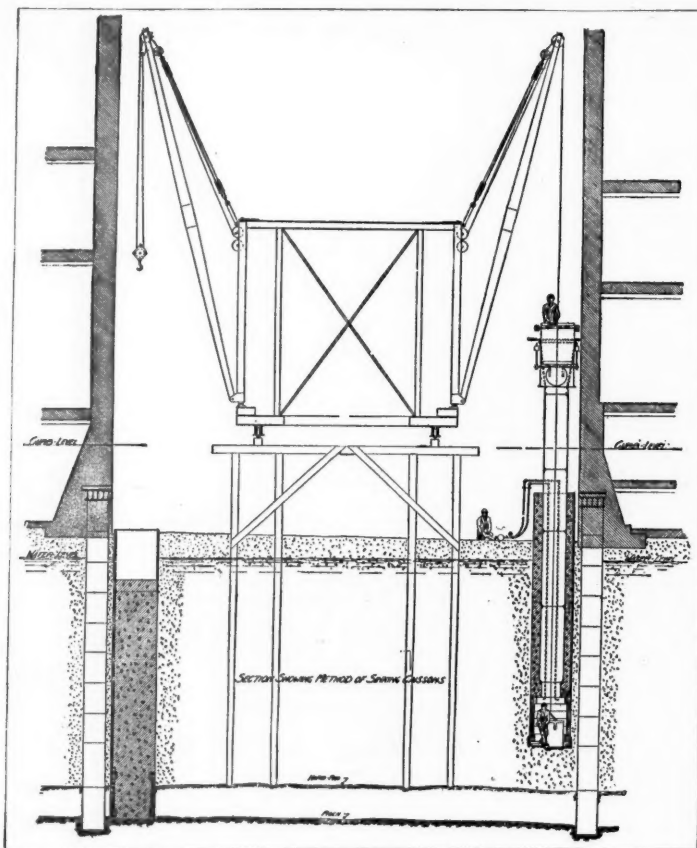
Eiffel Tower. Proposed Equitable Washington Building. Monument. St. Peter's, Rome.

#### A 2000-FOOT BUILDING,—THE MAXIMUM POSSIBLE HEIGHT UNDER EXISTING CONDITIONS.

(The Building Code of New York City allows a maximum foundation pressure of fifteen tons per square foot. Without exceeding this, it would be possible to erect on a lot 200 feet square the huge building shown above. It is 2000 feet high; weighs 516,500 tons; would cost \$60,000,000. The wind pressure would be 6000 tons. It would take eight times this pressure to overturn the structure.)

eration, and as a necessary consequence of massive foundations. In New York, on lower Broadway, solid bedrock lies between sixty and ninety-three feet below the level of the





From the Architects' & Builders' Magazine.

#### SINKING A PNEUMATIC CAISSON.

(This diagram shows the method of constructing the concrete foundation for each vertical column. The caisson on the left has been filled with concrete and the pier rests on bedrock, while the one on the right is being sunk and the material at the bottom is being removed.)

curb, and to this must be sunk the foundations of the modern skyscraper office building. This bedrock is overlaid by from five to eighteen feet of hard pan, which would support a foundation carrying from six to ten tons to the square foot, while above and extending to the surface is material designated as quicksand by the engineers, which is not available where the load is much in excess of three tons to the square foot. Now the bedrock will carry in safety a load from fifty to two hundred tons per square foot, but to reach it through the quicksand for a distance of fifty feet or more below the ground water line or seventy feet below the curb, and through twenty or more feet of hard pan to the underlying gneiss, as was the case in constructing the foundations for the City In-

vesting Building, means that a pneumatic caisson must be used for each individual foundation just as if it were the subaqueous foundation of a bridge. In such a caisson, which is sunk clear to bedrock, a concrete pier or column is formed, and usually there must be a separate foundation for every column or pair of columns, which, resting on ribbed bases of cast iron, rise vertically the entire height of the building. In the case of the foundations for the City Investing Building, already mentioned, the foundation caissons covered approximately 45 per cent. of the plot and were but a few feet apart.

#### ERECTION AND FIRE-PROOFING.

The actual erection of the steel skeleton and the connection of the various parts present no extraordinary difficulties, but it does supply further evidence of the care and complete organization with which every step in the construction of a skyscraper is attended. Naturally on the premises there is little or no storage space, and the use of the streets being prohibited, the material must be brought to the building as required and set almost immediately in its permanent place, the column lengths, braces, and floor beams being hoisted into position and rapidly riveted by pneumatic hammers and oil-heated furnaces. The concrete or terra-cotta for floors soon follows, and then the fireproofing for columns and beams, so that no part of the metal structure is exposed. For here is the crucial point of the high building. It must be absolutely fireproof, and all parts of the struc-

ture must be so covered with tile or concrete or plaster that the heat cannot reach the steel and cause it to expand. And this is the more emphasized when it is realized to-day that every building over ten stories in height must supply its own fire protection, as it is beyond the reach of fire engines, and even the new high pressure must be administered through the standpipes and hose of the building.

After floors and fireproofing come the exterior walls and the ornamental cornices, cupolas, lanterns, etc., which, while adding to the total weight of the building, involve no particular difficulties of construction, though of course affording ample opportunity for decoration and ornament. The New York building code provides that the walls of a steel skeleton building shall be twelve inches in thickness for the upper seventy-five feet of the building height, and below that point shall increase four inches in thickness for each succeeding sixty feet.

The vertical columns in the interior of the building, to which we have referred, possess two very important functions in that certain of them must surround the elevator shafts and to them must be connected the guide rails along which the elevators operate, while in proximity to other columns, but in the best practice in a separate compartment or pipe shaft of terra-cotta or tile, are the electrical conductors for light, heat and power, steam, water, compressed air and vacuum pipes, and the cables carrying telephones, telegraph and time service wires, various outlets, connections and switchboards being provided at each floor.

#### THE HIGH SPEED ELEVATOR ESSENTIAL TO THE SKYSCRAPER.

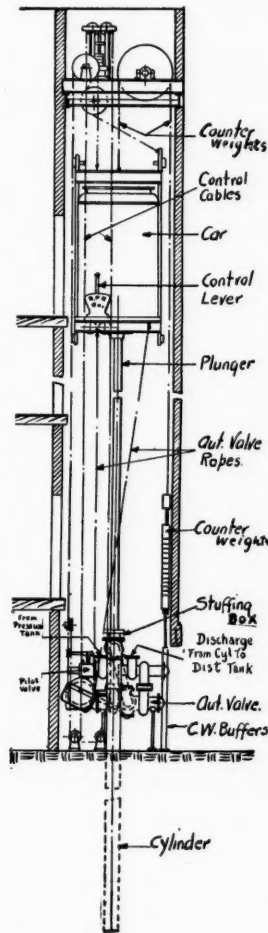
In the last analysis it has been only the high-speed elevator that has made a practical possibility of the tower building, and successive efforts have culminated in elevators which travel the 546 feet of the Singer Building tower and to the forty-fourth story in the tower of the Metropolitan Life Building. Such a journey in the elevators used but a few years ago would have required from ten to fifteen minutes, which of course would have rendered the upper floors of such a tower unavailable for rental, but to-day even when the speed of an elevator is limited by the building regulations to 600 feet per minute, it is possible to secure safe and speedy service. Indeed, many engineers think that this restriction is a most wholesome as well as liberal provision, and it is so found in actual

practice, for it is not the time spent by the car in travel that counts, but that required for the ingress and egress of passengers, amounting often to 75 per cent. of the time

required for a trip. Therefore small cars running with moderate velocity are usually more advantageous than large cars of greater speed, while as a result of experience it is stated that one elevator is needed for every 25,000 feet of rental floor space. Now for the requirements of the very high building two types of elevator have been evolved, both of which in actual use have been found satisfactory. These are the plunger elevator, in which hydraulic pressure acts directly on a long plunger working in a cylinder and carrying the car at its extremity, and the cable-drive elevator, which is based on the direct traction principle and is operated by an electric motor.

#### THE PLUNGER ELEVATOR.

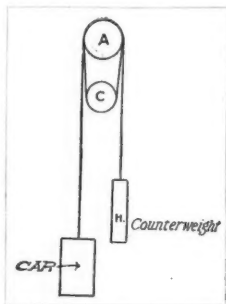
The plunger elevator is an interesting application of a



STANDARD PLUNGER ELEVATOR.

(The plunger elevator is operated by means of water under pressure being admitted to the cylinder, this power being applied directly on the plunger through the medium of pilot and main valves controlled by lever from the car. The descent is by gravity, the main valve being opened and allowing the water displaced by the plunger in its descent to escape to discharge tanks. Counterweights and cables are used only to compensate for the variable buoyancy of the plunger.)

principle that until comparatively recent years had been used for very short lifts only, and it requires a deep well drilled into the ground for the cylinder in which the plunger operates. The most extensive installation of plunger elevators is to be found in the City Investing Building, where twenty-one have been provided, seven of which, operating as express to the seven-



PRINCIPLE OF TRACTION ELEVATOR.

teenth floor and local to the twenty-sixth, have a travel of 368 feet, which is a record distance for plunger elevators. To sink the wells for the elevator cylinders over one mile of drilling was required, while the total length of car and counterweight guide rails exceeds four and one-half miles.

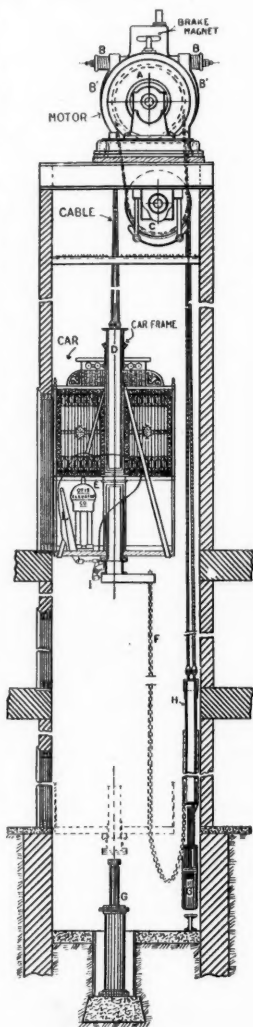
#### THE ELECTRIC TRACTION ELEVATOR.

With the electric direct connected traction elevator even greater heights are possible, and such machines are found installed in the towers of the Singer and the Metropolitan Life buildings, as well as in the new Terminal Building. In this type of elevator an electric motor usually is placed directly over the elevator shaft above the car, and the cables supporting the latter pass up and over a sheave or pulley, A, mounted on the same shaft as the armature or revolving part of the motor. After passing around a second sheave or idler, C, the cable again is wound around the main sheave and is connected with a counterweight, H, equal of course to the weight of the car and its average load. Now at a normal armature speed of sixty revolutions per minute the circumferential velocity of the sheave, which naturally is the same as that of the cable, is sufficient to insure the de-

sired velocity of 600 feet per minute, while the regulation of the motor by switches and resistances is readily accom-

plished. Various safety devices are installed, but as a last resort there are oil cushions or buffers for both car and counterweight, which are designed to bring the car to a safe stop from full speed at either the top or bottom of the shaft. Such an elevator in the Singer Building rises in the tower to a height of 546 feet, while in the Metropolitan Life Insurance Building five such shafts will rise to the forty-first story and one to the forty-fourth. In the Hudson and Manhattan Terminal buildings there are thirty-nine of these elevators, with a maximum travel of 285 feet for those rising to the twenty-second story.

For power, light, and heating it is plain that these new office buildings must require large and elaborate steam, pumping, and electric plants located in their basements, and the special mechanical engi-



OTIS TRACTION ELEVATOR.

(A, driving sheave on motor; B, springs for actuating brake shoes; B', shoes released by magnet overcoming or compressing springs; C, idler; D, girdle carrying car; E, control switch; F, compensating chain carried by car to equalize the weight of the cable as car varies position; G, oil buffers at bottom of shaft and on counterweight; H, counterweight; I, safety device; L, emergency lever.)

neering of such a building presents many special problems on account of limited space both for machinery and for coal storage. In the Terminal buildings not only has there been installed a complete power plant, but arrangements have been made to use current from the power-house at Jersey City, a special transformer room having been designed for the sub-basement where the alternating current passing through the tunnel will be transformed into direct for the service of the building.

#### INTERIOR DECORATION.

Just as in the case of the exterior of the new office buildings, the public passageways and halls of the lower stories afford considerable opportunity for interior decoration, often rising to a height of two or three stories and being adorned with marble, carving and bronze, so that their appearance is most attractive. And these halls have a double function, as, in addition to giving access to the elevators, they often serve as public passages leading from street to street, or preferably supplying the approach to elevated or underground railways. Now for a person to be able to step from tube, subway, or elevated platform directly into an elevator naturally makes offices in such a building most convenient and desirable, while the large number of people passing through the ground-floor halls or arcades, in addition to the regular occupants of the building, makes small booths or offices most available for retail business. Indeed, so many people are collected in such a structure that such conveniences as special telegraph offices, restaurants, newsstands, book and stationery shops, cigar stands, and shoe-polishing establishments are most essential, not to mention haberdashers, tailors, real-estate agents, confectioners, and the hundred and one other occupations that can flourish where a number of people are gathered together. But withal the character of the building must be preserved, and the ease with which the office of a firm can be found, especially if identified with the name of a building that is on every one's tongue, makes a recently erected skyscraper a most desirable building in which to have an office, while the various improvements making for comfort and convenience are all appreciated at a time when business must follow the line of least resistance.

In the skyscraper we have simply turned our stream of travel from its normal horizontal to a vertical direction, and we have



Copyright, 1908, by Pach Bros., N. Y.

THE TOWER BUILDING OF THE METROPOLITAN INSURANCE COMPANY, MADISON SQUARE, NEW YORK.

(Our photograph shows the tower approaching completion. It has fifty stories, and its flagstaff is 700 feet above the sidewalk. This great campanile to-day is only excelled in height by the Eiffel Tower in Paris.)

substituted private streets and modes of conveyance for those of the city below.

#### METROPOLITAN LIFE TOWER A LANDMARK.

Most notable perhaps is the tower of the Metropolitan Life Building, designed by N. Le Brun & Son, which with its glistening white marble already has become a landmark for the city. As the insurance company desired more space, and as it owned the single corner not occupied by its main building, it was but natural that this vacant space should be utilized in such a way as to add to the dignity of its massive and imposing Italian Renaissance structure. Now no more fitting climax for such a group of buildings could be imagined than this noble





Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.

THE SINGER TOWER AND CITY INVESTING BUILDING,  
ON BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

(Compare this photograph with the sky-line picture at the beginning of this article, where these two buildings appear in the centre as seen from the North River.)

campanile rising with its forty-six stories 700 feet above the sidewalk. For a great insurance company to have a home of such a monumental character is no small asset, and the value of such a structure outside of land, mortar, and stone cannot be underestimated.

Indeed, with its great clock 324 feet above the sidewalk, where hands twelve feet in length point to four-foot numerals on dials twenty-five feet in diameter, and with its four tower bells still higher up and announcing the quarter-hours from a point twice as high as any other chimes in the world, the Metropolitan Life Building long must stand as one of the world's wonders. Here, as in other office buildings, the floor space can be computed in acres, and the entire building, with its grand total of 16,237,034 cubic feet, has a floor area of 1,085,663 square feet, or about twenty-five acres, available for the business of the company or for rental.

#### THE SINGER TOWER.

Sharing the honors for a high tower building with the white Italian campanile of the Metropolitan Life is the Singer Tower, designed by Ernest Flagg, which, however, suffers in any comparison with the former on account of the lofty buildings with which it is surrounded and the absence of the park at its foot. Here we have a forty-seven-story tower as the predominant feature of the remodeling and amplification of the old Singer Building at Broadway and Liberty Street. This unique structure, sixty-five feet square, sets back fifteen feet from Broadway and in its height of 612 feet carries forty-two office floors, each with sixteen offices. In the Singer Building the walls are of brick and limestone, while copper sheathing is used conspicuously, especially in the tower, where considerable decoration has been employed. The architecture is modern French, and naturally involves greater adornment than in the Metropolitan Tower, yet there is no loss of stability in the general appearance, and the extreme height of the tower is marked by grace and strength. Together with the main building, which is fourteen stories in height and has forty offices on each floor, the Singer Tower supplies about nine and one-half acres of floor space for rental.

#### AN OFFICE BUILDING ON A GREAT TERMINAL.

Passing from tower buildings to those of somewhat different type, the Terminal Buildings of the Hudson and Manhattan Railroad Company, of which Clinton & Russell are the architects, not only rise to a considerable elevation, twenty-two stories, or 275 feet, above the curb, but they are remarkable as constituting the largest and heaviest structure for an office building in Manhattan.

This building really represents two distinct structures, numbers 30 and 50 Church Street, running from Cortlandt to Fulton Streets, though separated by Dey Street, but as they have been built by the same corporation on the same foundation, and as they contain the terminal of the Hudson River tube and form one structure below the street, they are usually spoken of together. Over twenty acres of floor space are available for rental, and the two buildings could be divided into some 4000 offices, with accommodations for 10,000 people, or a population equivalent to that of Sioux Falls, S. D.

This enormous building has been constructed on an immense box of concrete, 420 feet in length and 178 feet in breadth at its widest point, with walls eight feet thick going down to solid rock, an average depth of seventy-five feet below the surface. Now this gigantic box of concrete is pierced so that the trains from the tunnel under the Hudson River can enter through Cortlandt Street and pass out through Fulton Street, the tracks being about thirty feet below street level, while the building proper supplies the necessary approaches to the platforms, ticket offices, waiting-rooms, etc. The terminal arrangements in no way interfere with the use of the portion above the sidewalk as an office building. Indeed, each building above the third story has a floor plan of H-form, so



THE WEST STREET BUILDING.

(Considered one of the most successful designs for a large office building, as it combines with utility great architectural beauty.)

that abundant light and air are secured for the various offices, there being some 5000 windows in the two buildings. While the Terminal buildings have not the ornate exteriors of some of the recent high office buildings, yet they are massive and imposing and carry out effectively their general object.

THE CITY INVESTING BUILDING.

Another interesting example of a skyscraper is the City Investing Building, F. H. Kimball, architect, with its entrance on Broadway, near Cortlandt Street, and extending through to Church Street, with a frontage on Cortlandt Street. Here we have an office building designed to afford a maximum of rental space and without the necessity of striking architectural features or the consideration of unique conditions. The result has been a rich and artistic building which rises from the Broadway sidewalk to a height



THE GREAT TERMINAL BUILDINGS.

(These buildings house daily a population greater than that of many a small city. Beneath is the downtown terminal of the Hudson River tubes.)

of thirty-two stories, or counting from the basement to the tower over 500 feet. The architectural base for the first five stories is faced with limestone, while above white glazed brick and white terra cotta have been used, and emphasize the opinion of many architects that a single solid color brings out most effectively the mass and form of a skyscraper.

The upper stories and the attic of the City Investing Building show considerable decoration, while within the building the arcade on the ground floor extending from Broadway to Church Street is as prominent a feature of its general plan as it is from a decorative point of view. Here have been concentrated a wealth of artistic adornment, marble, bronze, ornamental plaster, and carved stone being among the materials used. The City Investing Building has a floor space available for renting of nearly eleven acres, and its total cost was about \$10,000,000.

The present space does not permit consideration of such important structures as the new West Street Building of Cass Gilbert, the new home of the Trust Company of America, or others almost equally important, but it is desirable to refer briefly to several important projects that seem to indicate that the last word in skyscraper construction has not yet been said.

#### A STILL LOFTIER BUILDING PROPOSED.

First of these is the proposed office building for the Equitable Life Assurance Society to be erected on the present building of the company on the block bounded by Broadway, Nassau, Pine, and Cedar streets. The plans prepared by D. H. Burnham & Co. call for a structure of sixty-two stories, 909 feet in height, exclusive of a 150-foot flag-pole, and being 209 feet higher than the Metropolitan Life tower and 292 feet higher than the Singer Building, as indicated in the illustration on page 579. Whether the building ever will be erected may be considered at this moment an open question, but the acceptance of the plans by the building department is of course a great advantage, whether the insurance company decides to erect such a building itself or should wish to dispose of the land with such permission for its construction.

The plans show a building of Renaissance type built in three sections surmounted by a cupola. The first or main building is 489 feet, or thirty-four stories high, or twice the height of the main building of either the

Metropolitan Life Insurance Company or the Singer Building, and will be finished with cupolas several stories in height set around the base of the tower or second section. This will extend from the thirty-fourth to the forty-ninth story in the center of the building, being, of course, of smaller plan, and in turn will be surmounted by a still smaller section reaching to the fifty-eighth story, above which for four stories more will rise the main cupola. The main façades will be of brick and granite with terra-cotta trimmings, while the design shows bays set between pilasters of Corinthian and Doric orders, with clustered columns at the corners.

#### OTHER HIGH BUILDINGS PLANNED.

Less monumental than the proposed Equitable Building is the thirty-eight story building, designed by W. C. Hazlett, to be erected on lower Broadway, to supplant the old Tower Building, to which reference was made at the beginning of this article, as well as to occupy adjoining lots, while a new and lofty structure to take the place of the Mills Building, with a tower 1000 feet in height, has been proposed.

#### THE SKYSCRAPER AN AMERICAN TYPE.

Whether the American city has been justified in permitting the skyscraper to flourish, or whether the American investor in the end will find the lofty tower and the huge office building a useful and profitable investment, time only can tell, but that the American architect and engineer have been able to meet the opportunity which has given rise to these structures admits of no discussion. Not only has a type of building based on pure utility and special conditions been evolved, but an artistic design and treatment has resulted that to-day justly earns the admiration of European critics. And in actual construction no less than in design have American ingenuity and engineering skill been manifest. Structural materials,—especially steel, terra cotta, and concrete,—have been improved, and their use has been developed along scientific lines, so that the construction of a modern skeleton building with due regard to all elements of safety can be carried on with a skill and certainty not excelled in any form of structural engineering. And with the experience of large fires and an earthquake to test his work, the engineer of the modern skyscraper surely can say that he, like his building, stands on a firm and safe foundation.

# THE GOVERNMENT'S INSPECTION OF MEATS.

BY GUY ELLIOTT MITCHELL.

THE people of the United States consume over 15,000,000,000 pounds of meat annually, a per capita consumption of nearly 200 pounds a year. This is considerably more meat for each man, woman, and child than the weight of the average full-grown man. The meat-consuming units of the American family eat every year more than double their weight of edible flesh and over three times their own weight of what may be termed meat on the hoof. It is calculated by the Bureau of Animal Industry at Washington that meat constitutes fully one-third of the nation's food bill, a proportion which makes the average European workingman scratch his head in amazement that there should be such a vast meat supply, and wonder if perhaps we are not cannibals. The majority of fairly prosperous foreigners never see meat on their tables oftener than once a week. Think of it! Only fifty-two good

meals of meat in a year! Where would the "Beef Trust" be with such a market in America?

The condition being as it is in the United States, and the fact being that the average family eats meat more than once a day, the wisdom of an adequate meat-inspection law, strictly enforced, is more than apparent. Our system of meat inspection is the result of a series of laws, the latest enactment, which relates principally to canned and preserved meats, being the outcome of the tremendous popular uprising of 1906. This question now presents itself: "Is the present law adequate and effective, and, now that the flurry of popular indignation on the subject has subsided, is it well administered?" To this query the answer can be made that the Government meat inspection of to-day is satisfactory to the consumer, however closely he may inspect its operation. Despite, too, the direful prophesies to the contrary, it has proved to be an absolute advantage to the packers and manufacturers, for it has given their products a standing which they never before enjoyed. The law is comprehensive, it is working well, and it is being strictly enforced. It protects the people against disease.

## PROTECTION AGAINST DISEASE.

To the public the importance of meat inspection lies in the fact that all the meat animals are subject to very many diseases which impair or totally destroy the wholesomeness of their meat as food, often making it actual poison, so that the piece of meat eaten, apparently wholesome, may carry the germs of a fatal malady. Therefore both *ante-mortem* and *post-mortem* inspection to detect these diseases are of the greatest importance to the health of the nation. Dr. Melvin, the chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry, says: "To protect the people at a point where they are unable to protect themselves is, generally speaking, the object of the meat-inspection service. Diseased meat is the direct cause of disease in those who eat it. The consumer being himself unable to determine whether or not the meat he buys is diseased, demands that he be protected by the Government from the cupidity or ignorance, or both, of those from whom he buys."



BEEF IN CHILLING-ROOM, INSPECTED AND PASSED.

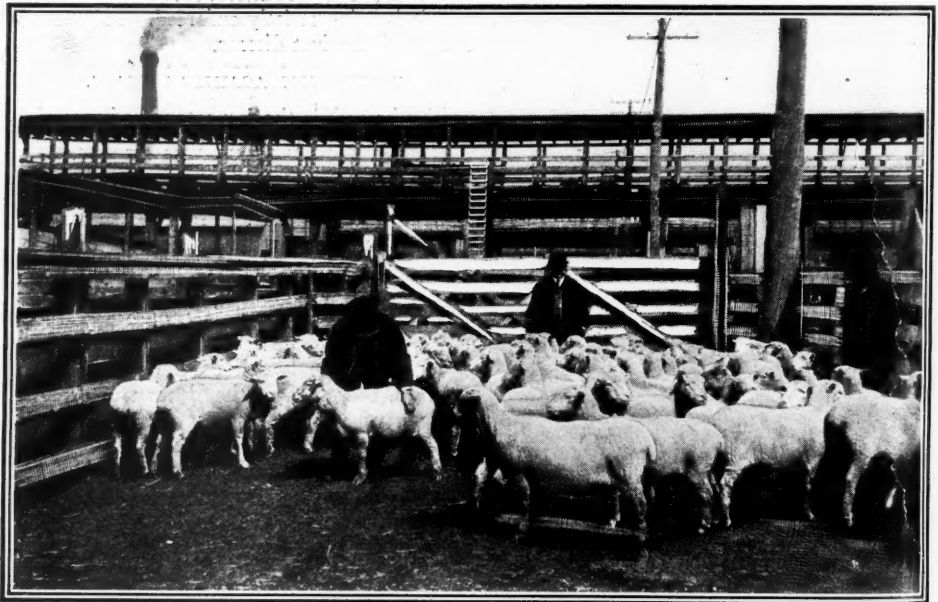


## INSPECTION OF LIVE ANIMALS.

Since before the time of Moses the necessity of an official meat inspection has been recognized. It is not important, however, to follow historically this governmental function from such an early date. That which will most interest persons who have the meat to eat will be to briefly trace the course of the animals from the time of their first inspection, when alive, down to the last step, when their carcasses are ready for shipment or for consumption. The law does not require the examination of the animal alive, but places this act within the discretion of the Secretary of Agriculture. It is, however, rigidly performed. The Government inspector visits the pens and examines each animal. When he finds one that is not to his mind perfectly sound and healthy he attaches to it a numbered metal tag marked, "U. S. Suspect." Such animals are separated from the apparently healthy ones, and in the *post-mortem* examination their carcasses receive specially careful attention. If the *post-mortem* examination does not confirm the suspicions aroused by the appearance of the live animal, the carcass is sent along as edible meat; otherwise it is sent to the condemned-meat tank, to be converted into fertilizer, etc.

## THE POST-MORTEM EXAMINATION OF MEATS.

Having run the gantlet of the *ante-mortem* inspection,—the examination of the living animals,—those which have appeared to the inspector sound and healthy are conveyed through runways into the slaughter-houses. Here, in the larger establishments, the work of butchering proceeds with wonderful system and rapidity. From the time the steer is knocked in the head to the time when he has been completely cut up and disposed of, at least sixteen different butchers have been at work upon him, and each step is watched by lynx-eyed officers of the Government. Where blood is to be used for food purposes it is caught in a numbered receptacle and held until the carcass is further examined. The fat removed from the abdomen is placed in a numbered box for identification. At the first exposure of the glands when the head is severed an inspector makes an examination for tubercular infection. Another inspector stands at the elbow of the gutter and as the viscera are revealed watches with practiced eye for abnormalities, carefully examining and handling various parts to discover any obscure indication of disease. When he finds a diseased carcass he attaches a tag, "U. S. Retained," with a number. Then the carcass, with all the parts that have been sepa-



INSPECTION OF SHEEP JUST BEFORE KILLING, BY OFFICIAL INSPECTOR, BUREAU OF ANIMAL INDUSTRY.

rated, none of which has been allowed to lose its identity, is sent directly to the "retaining-room."

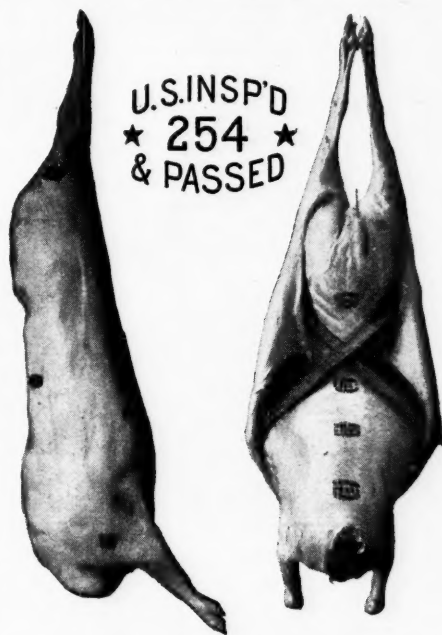
#### TREATMENT OF MEAT CARCASSES.

Carcasses with which the inspector has found nothing wrong are hurried along their way, washed in boiling water, scrubbed, and wiped dry with clean towels, and just before entering the chill-room are stamped with indelible ink on various parts, "U. S. Inspected and Passed," with the carcass number. The same number follows the carcass from the time it enters the house and is also registered in the Department of Agriculture's records, serving as a sure method of tracing meat about which any subsequent question may arise. No meat not so marked can be shipped from one State to another.

Calves, sheep, and goats are handled in about the same manner as are cattle, but the slaughter and inspection of hogs are quite different. Following the "sticking" of the animal, the carcass is dropped into a great vat of scalding water, where it is poled from one end to the other, and is then automatically scraped of its hair. The carcass drops on a moving platform, and a butcher almost severs its head, exposing the cervical glands, where over 90 per cent. of the causes of tuberculosis are detected. Beside this butcher stands a Government inspector, who examines the glands, feels them, or cuts them with his own knife. If he finds disease, at the first switch in the hog railroad the carcass leaves its fellows, is shunted to another rail, tagged "U. S. Retained," and sent to the retaining-room. The inspector thrusts his knife into a pail of disinfectant solution and passes upon the next hog. The carcasses whose heads show no disease pass on and are disemboweled, the carcass and the viscera being carefully scrutinized by another, skilled inspector. The next step is splitting the carcasses, more inspectors examining the freshly cut halves and sometimes finding lesions in bones or muscles, in which case they are marked for the retaining-room. For the healthy carcasses the procedure is now the same as for other animals; they go through the shower bath, are labeled, and go to the cooling-rooms, while inspectors make a closer examination, in the retaining-room, of those carcasses which have been held as suspicious, and determine whether they should be allowed to pass unconditionally, be made into lard, or sent to the offal-tank.

#### DEALING WITH SUSPECTED MEAT.

The retaining-room, where the inspected meat is examined, must be rat-proof, with cement floors, well lighted, and provided

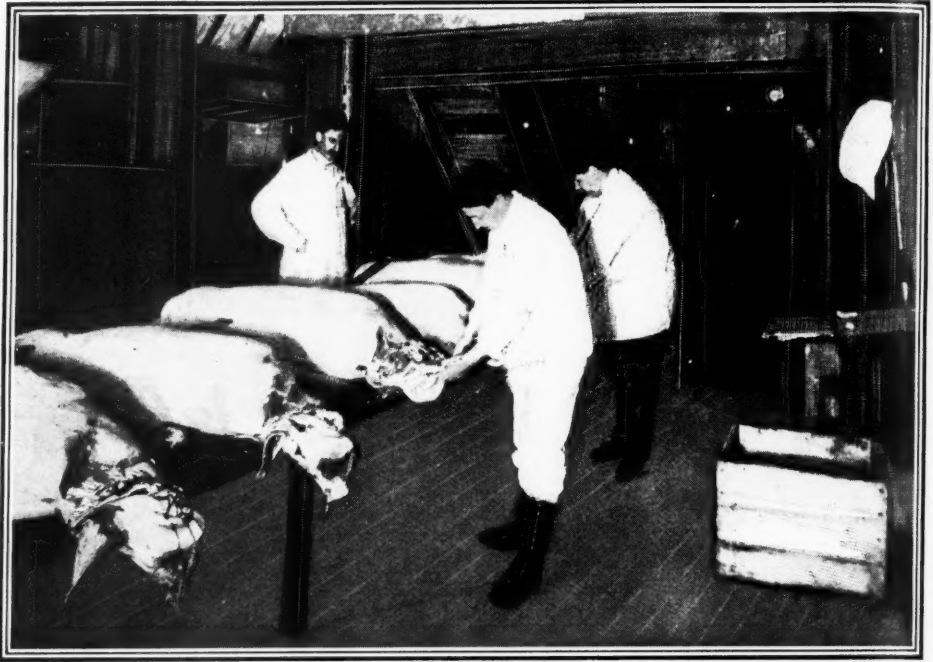


HOG AND SHEEP CARCASSES, INSPECTED, PASSED, AND STAMPED.

with a special lock, the key to which is kept by the inspector. Here the suspected and retained carcasses are critically examined. By no means all are finally condemned, because the examination of the first inspector has been necessarily hasty. It is his duty to be sure that all meat which he passes is exempt from disease. If there is any question about it he sends it to the retaining-room. If a later and more careful examination confirms his suspicions, the carcass is conspicuously stamped, and also the tag "U. S. Inspected and Condemned" is attached, when it is sent to the condemned-meat room and later to the tank. About 25 per cent. of the carcasses retained are afterward condemned.

#### INSPECTION "FROM PASTURE TO PACKAGE."

The present system of meat inspection is far more comprehensive than merely guaranteeing the wholesomeness of meat at the time of killing. In the vast business of curing, canning, pickling, etc., the Government holds strict supervision. The inspectors assure



INSPECTION OF THE NECK GLANDS OF HOGS FOR EVIDENCES OF TUBERCULOSIS.

(Government experience has shown that if the disease is present in the hogs it can be detected in the glands in 93 per cent. of the cases.)

themselves that the meats have not been spoiled or become unclean since the slaughter inspection. Such as have undergone changes that make them unfit for food are rejected and destroyed. Further, the inspectors see that no drugs, chemicals, or forbidden coloring matters are used. With microscope and reagents the experts of the Government bring to the aid of the inspection service the best efforts of modern bacteriological and chemical science. Then leaving, to use a well-known phrase, inspected the meat "from pasture to package," the Government takes a final step and insists that the package be properly and honestly labeled. It is one thing, says Dr. Melvin, to know that your package contains good meat; it is another to know that you buy what you think you buy.

#### A THOROUGHLY UP-TO-DATE SERVICE.

The great meat-packing establishments have been held up to the world as examples of the highest development of a specialized industry. They are the result of an evolution of years of gradual improvement. The federal meat-inspection service, in spite of its

organization into a great business almost immediately following the passage of the law, to-day stands side by side with, and is as modern and up-to-date as, the finely organized business that it supervises. The bureau furnishes a sufficient number of inspectors for the work, and they will work as fast as the improved appliances of the establishment permit or its needs demand. The Government will not require the proprietor to stop his work to send for the inspector or to wait for him to retire and make an elaborate report, a procedure common in the inspection systems of foreign countries. The American meat inspection is probably the model for the world. Its employees are capable and expert veterinarians, bacteriologists, and chemists, and the regulations and organization are so stringent, and the transfer of inspectors and inspection of inspectors so frequent, that collusion or dishonesty is practically impossible. The consumer of meats which bear the stamp "U. S. Inspected and Passed" may have the very comfortable assurance that he is buying and eating products from healthy animals, prepared under clean and sanitary conditions.

# THE RAILROAD AS AN ADVANCE AGENT OF PROSPERITY.

BY KATHARINE COMAN.

A EUROPEAN railway manager who was inspecting an American trans-continental railway, exclaimed: "But this is not what we call railroading! We transport the people and goods offered by our territory. You are creating the business that you exploit."

Our Western railroads have been built in advance of population and have been obliged to develop their territory industrially as an essential preliminary to profitable business. The Chicago, Burlington & Quincy is a case in point. The first railroad to strike west from Chicago and make connection between the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River, its lines have been steadily pushed across the prairies to the base of the Rocky Mountains, outstripping the westward movement of industry. Burlington and Quincy were frontier towns in 1855, as are Billings, Guernsey, and Cheyenne to-day. It has been the consistent policy of the management throughout its half-century fight for existence to make the prosperity of its subsidiary territory a matter of prime concern, sacrificing, if need be, immediate profits to ultimate business success.

## INDUCING IMMIGRATION.

The first factor in industrial development, land, was provided in generous measure by the Government. Though the original Illinois company received no land grant, the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy inherited from the Hannibal & St. Joseph and the Burlington & Missouri railways, purchased and incorporated in the Burlington system, more than 3,000,000 acres of prairie soil. Northern Missouri, southern Iowa, and eastern Nebraska, the region covered by the subsidized lines, is surpassed by none in the United States for natural endowment. At the present price of \$100 an acre, these lands would represent a handsome revenue; but at the time the roads were built quarter-sections of prairie were a drug in the market, even at the Government price of \$1.25 per acre. The consistent policy of the management has been, not to hold its lands for advance in value, but to put them on sale as rapidly as

proved feasible, and at such a price as would attract to the region bona-fide farmers who should grow crops and raise cattle and furnish a demand for goods from the East, thus creating business for the road. To this end, land commissioners were appointed and advertising agents sent throughout the old Northwest, where soils were comparatively poor or had been exhausted. In the years before the Interstate Commerce law forbade such favors, passes and special rates brought would-be purchasers by the trainload into the districts advertised. Special freight rates on "colonists'" goods, agricultural implements, and household supplies rendered the offer of cheap land in the new West doubly attractive. It was the part of wisdom not merely to get farmers onto the land, but to keep them there and to enable them to earn a living. During the early '70's, when hard times and the grasshopper reduced Nebraska to the verge of ruin, the railroad came to the rescue of the farmers. Thousands of people were passed back to their homes, carloads of supplies contributed by Eastern cities were sent out free of charge, seed for the next planting was freighted into the devastated districts and sold to the farmers on credit. The present prosperity of Nebraska is in good measure due to this timely aid.

## ADVERTISING THE DRY-FARMING METHOD.

West of the hundredth meridian, where the average annual rainfall was seldom more than ten or fourteen inches, and agriculture seemed impossible, land was selling in grazing tracts at 25 cents an acre until the advent of dry-farming. Under the supervision of H. W. Campbell, the prophet of this latest agricultural gospel, three experiment farms were started,—one in Kansas, one in Nebraska, and one in Colorado,—and it was soon conclusively proved that all the crops suitable to this latitude could be grown without irrigation. In 1895 the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy inaugurated a new campaign of advertisement, printing pamphlets and folders and sending a deluge of literature into the older farming States. A very effective device was the demonstration car, fitted out



with sample yields and carrying one or more practical farmers to explain the method and its results. Converts to the new idea came in the main from Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Iowa. "People move along climatic lines," said an experienced land commissioner to me. "There is no use in going south of the Ohio River or east of Buffalo for recruits. They won't believe the evidence of their own senses." This costly educational campaign was carried on for the purpose of selling, not the railroad lands, which were practically exhausted, but the Government lands in western Nebraska, the cultivation of which would none the less bring a revenue to the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy.

#### PROMOTING IRRIGATION PROJECTS.

Farther west, in the arid foothills of the Rockies and along the mountain river valleys, recent irrigation projects are converting wastes of sagebrush and cactus into productive farming country. Whether reservoirs and ditches are built by co-operative associations of land-owners, by syndicates that have taken advantage of the Carey act, or by the federal Government, the enterprise is regarded by the railroad management as tributary to its own development, and therefore to be aided and promoted. The Interstate Canal, built by the Reclamation Service on the North Platte River, where it flows from Wyoming into Nebraska, and the various private projects in this neighborhood, have placed 450,000 acres of land "under water" and converted the approach to Fort Laramie, formerly the despair of the overland emigrant, into highly profitable alfalfa, sugar-beet, and potato farms. The valley of the Big Horn River, once the goal and too often the grave of the trapper and Indian trader, is being rapidly settled. Fully 600,000 acres is now under irrigation. The Cody branch of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy brings this remote region within two days of Omaha, and within three days of the Chicago markets. Above and below Billings, on the Yellowstone River, Government and private projects are being pushed to completion that will add another 100,000 acres to the irrigated area subsidiary to the Burlington transportation system. In the disposition of these lands the railroad plays no small part, advertising sales, describing crop possibilities, and organizing homeseekers' excursions to its west-

tern termini. Intelligent guides are sent with each expedition to assist purchasers to get at the facts, and prospective settlers are urged to see for themselves.

The promotion of fakes is no part of this far-sighted policy. Every irrigation scheme is examined by a trusted agent, and no lands are advertised until the water is actually in the canals and ready for distribution. Great pains is taken to fit the farmers for the new conditions of husbandry. Simple treatises on dry-farming, on irrigation, on diversification of crops, on stock-raising and dairy farming are among the publications regularly printed and distributed by the Landseekers' Information Bureau at Omaha. New industries that promise to develop the region experience the same fostering care. The beet-sugar mills at Denver, Billings, and Grand Island were aided by special rates on raw material, machinery, and product while such privileges were legal, and are still assured of cheap transportation during the summer months from the centers whence a labor supply may be drawn. At the opening of the "campaign" whole trainloads of men, women, and children are moved from eastern Kansas and Nebraska to the sugar-beet belt, at slightly more than a single fare for the round trip.

#### A FAIR-RATE POLICY.

In the adjustment of freight rates, that most difficult problem of railway finance, the Burlington management is governed by its established policy of basing the prosperity of the road on the prosperity of its clientele. The nice adjustment of rates to "what the traffic will bear" is undertaken, not for the purpose of extracting the highest possible profit, but with a view to the ultimate capacity of each and every industry that contributes to the freight receipts of the system. To crush nascent prosperity by exorbitant charges would be to throttle the hen that is to lay the golden eggs of future dividends. In a statement submitted to the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce in 1885, Charles E. Perkins, president of the road from 1881 to 1901, and the determining influence in its history, voiced this policy in his assertion that "the desire of the railroad to increase the volume of business and to promote the prosperity of the country upon which it depends for its support" is a sufficient guaranty of fair dealing with its constituency.

# THE MEN WHO COUNT IN THE BALKANS.

## WHO'S WHO AND WHAT'S WHAT IN THE PENINSULA OF UNREST.

BY E. ALEXANDER POWELL.

(Late of the American Consular Service in Ottoman Dominions; Balkan Correspondent of the London *Evening Standard*.)

THE expected has happened. Bulgaria has at last thrown off the Turkish yoke and Ferdinand the pompous has assumed the crown and style of Czar of the Bulgars. The bauble crown that he had made a dozen years or so ago at Munich has at last become of use. Austria, seizing her opportunity, has annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina to the dual monarchy. The Sultan, shorn at this double stroke of more than 50,000 square miles of territory, turns helplessly to the ministry thrust upon him by the party of Turkish reform and asks, "What shall I do?" The Young Turks, knowing full well that the internal dissension which they have stirred up has so weakened the *morale* and efficiency of the army that its effectiveness is seriously crippled, gather about café tables and sip *masticas* and wonder if they will be able to weather the storm of national indignation which a tame submission to the despoilers will inevitably bring on. Hot-headed Servia, seeing in the fate of Bosnia a forecast of her own, is arming for resistance. Roumania, needing a longer coast line, is almost ready to throw in her lot with Bulgaria,—for a *quid pro quo*. Greece, the mischief-maker, scents trouble from afar and comes hastening up, ready to take sides with the stronger party. The Albanian tribesmen are sharpening their yataghans, and Nicholas of Montenegro has bidden his warriors keep their powder dry, or words to that effect. Macedonia,—that distressful land,—still reeks with the blood of her murdered people and the smoke of her burned villages. If war comes she knows full well that it is she who must bear the brunt of it. The Balkan bonfire is ready to be lighted.

But it is not Ferdinand with his toy crown, nor Abdul the shifty-eyed, nor any one else south of the Danube who will decide the matter of peace or war. It all rests in the hands of a half-dozen grave-faced, frock-coated gentlemen in the chancelleries of London, Petersburg, and Paris, of Berlin,

Vienna, and Rome, who sit at the ends of telegraph wires and decide whether the Balkan apple is fully ripe and, if so, how it shall be divided.

The Balkan Peninsula has aptly been called the cockpit of Europe. It is there that the eternal Eastern Question has its origin; it is there that the East and the West, the Cross and the Crescent meet; and it is there, one day, when Europe is ready, that the fate of the Ottoman Empire will be decided. Of all parts of Europe none is so little known to the average traveler as the Near East. Indeed, it is no exaggeration to say that many regions of Asia and Africa are more familiar to the traveled American than the lands which lie beyond the Adriatic.

What manner of men are these little-known rulers who are continually setting all Europe by the ears, and who back up their threats by armies ten times larger than our own? What know you of these warrior-peoples who were brought up on pistols instead of nursing-bottles and who have written their histories with the yataghan instead of with the pen?

### ROUMANIA'S ABLE SOVEREIGN.

Something over forty years ago a young man in traveling tweeds might have been observed quietly leaving a Danube steamer at Turnu Severin and disembarking on what was then Turkish soil. So little did his fellow-passengers regard him that their only interest was that a passenger whose ticket was for Odessa should cut his journey short at so God-forsaken a village as Turnu Severin. Three days later that young man, who was no other than Prince Charles of Hohenzollern, was proclaimed Prince of Roumania at Bucharest. To-day, Charles I., King of a free Roumania, after a reign of more than two-score years, sees what was once a Turkish vassal state standing proudly erect among the nations.

He came as a stranger to a strange coun-

try, with only his own unalterable determination, his strong sense of duty, and his Hohenzollern ancestry to back him up. His training, which had been that of an officer in a crack Prussian regiment, stood him in good stead at a critical moment of his career. King Charles has always been at heart a soldier, and the patriotic army of the first class which he has built up has proved not only his enthusiasm, but his military ability. In 1877 the Roumanian army, under his leadership, saved the Russians at Plevna and gained their country's independence; to-day, some half a million strong on a war footing, they are able and ready to play a decisive part in the history of Europe should their King and their country demand it.

Charles I. is now, at sixty-nine, one of the wisest and most highly accomplished statesmen of his time, and no one would think of questioning the absolute security of his hold upon the Roumanian throne. He is thoroughly abreast of the times and possesses a more than superficial knowledge of those various arts and sciences which he is expected as a ruler to protect and promote. By his marriage to the Princess Elizabeth of Wied,—"a marriage so non-political as to make it a political event of the first importance,"—he brought to Roumania a queen who has made herself beloved of all and who speedily became the center of all charitable works and ideas. Queen Elizabeth, who is better known under the pen name of "Carmen Sylva," has won a high place in literature, several of her poems and dramas,—which, by the way, she typewrites herself,—having been crowned by the French Academy. Like her husband, the Queen is an inveterate enemy of pomp and etiquette and, unlike most queens, dares to declare her preferences openly.

#### ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT.

The efforts of King Charles have been principally devoted to internal development. As a result of his influence the railways were taken over by the state in 1886, and since then have been increased and improved; he has created a great commercial port at Constantza on the Black Sea, whence the grain and petroleum of Roumania can flood the market; owing to his great personal knowledge of the land and people he has done much to promote forestry in the Carpathians; he has carefully encouraged agriculture, and the country is to-day one of the chief grain-producing nations of the world; an educational

system has sprung into being, owing to the direct support and inspiration of the royal family; by the discovery of extensive petroleum-fields Roumania has been raised from the position of a country relying solely upon the rain and sun for its prosperity; while, thanks to the King's indefatigable efforts and unceasing watchfulness, the petroleum industry has been protected from becoming the monopoly either of the ruthless Standard Oil Company or of the politically directed German Bank. In civilization, culture, and intellect the Roumanians stand head and shoulders above all the other peoples of the Peninsula. Where once was chaos, corruption, and oppression, to-day is an orderly state of the same area as Alabama and the same population as Pennsylvania, which is an example to the world of peaceful internal development and a tranquil but persistent foreign policy.

#### SERVIA AND HER RULER.

"Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown" is a proverb that is peculiarly fitting to Peter I., King of Servia. He occupies the most uneasy throne in Europe. He knows full well, moreover, that, like his predecessor, the ill-fated Alexander,—of whose assassination many accuse him of having been an instigator,—he may well lose his crown and his life at the same time. Peter is now sixty-four years of age, but with his erect carriage and military bearing looks quite ten years younger. He has been a widower for nearly twenty years, his wife, the Princess Zorka, a daughter of Prince Nicholas of Montenegro, having died in 1890, leaving him with a daughter and two sons. The eldest of his sons, the Crown Prince George, who is just of age, is unruly, hot-tempered, ill-mannered, headstrong, and haughty; friends of the dynasty say that he is merely impetuous; enemies that he is insane, and if some of the performances he has been credited with are true, the latter conjecture must be correct.

King Peter, who receives a civil list of \$240,000 a year, rules over a country which is equal in size and in population to New Hampshire and Vermont combined. Servia is naturally a very fertile land, and with good and steady government might become exceedingly prosperous. There is no pauperism in the sense in which it is understood in the West, the poorest having some sort of freehold property. There are, of course, a few poor people in Belgrade,—the white city," as it is justly named,—but

neither their condition nor their number has necessitated such an institution as a poor-house. The Servians are an uneasy and turbulent people, with frequent changes of ministry and political upheavals. The army is well drilled and fairly efficient.

The Peter Karageorgevitch who is now king is, as his name implies, is a grandson of that Kara George (*kara* being a Turkish word, meaning black) who, in the early part of the last century, led the Servians in their revolt against the Turks, eventually making himself dictator under the title "Hospodar of the Serbs." This intrepid leader was an obscure and illiterate peasant of immense physical prowess and great natural ability, who, knowing the woods and hills of Servia intimately, accomplished marvelous deeds in guerilla warfare, repeatedly repulsing great armies sent against him by the Turks. He was assassinated in 1817, however, and of the six rulers who have succeeded him on the Servian throne one died after a reign of thirty days, two were murdered, and three were forced to abdicate.

Peter was a boy of twelve when his father was driven from the throne. An exile from Servia, he was educated in Austria, graduated from the famous French military school of St. Cyr, and became an officer in the French army under the third Napoleon. At the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War he joined the famous Foreign Legion and served with so much gallantry that he was promoted to a captaincy on the field of battle and decorated with the cross of the Legion of Honor. A few years later, the Balkans having been set ablaze by the revolt of Bornaia and Herzegovina against the Turks, Peter went to Montenegro and joined in the struggle.

His residence in Montenegro gave him an opportunity to become a suitor for the hand of the Prince's daughter, and in 1883 he married the Princess Zorka. Peter's connections with the reigning family of Montenegro have been of considerable value to him, although it is said that his former extravagance and dissipation made it difficult for his high connections to have relations with him. The twelve years intervening between the loss of his wife and his sudden accession to a blood-stained throne he spent at his quiet home in Geneva, living the life of a student in the most unobtrusive, democratic, and economical fashion. He is regarded as exceedingly liberal, not to say socialistic, in his political views, his long residence in republics

like France and Switzerland making it comparatively easy for him to understand the fact that Servian sentiment is thoroughly liberal and that the day has gone by for high-handed and capricious conduct on the part of hereditary rulers in the Balkans.

#### PICTURESQUE PRINCE OF MONTENEGRO.

An elderly, portly, dusky gentleman in a white broadcloth frock-coat lavishly embroidered in gold, a broad and variegated waistband stuffed with weapons, a black tambourine cap, his blue trousers tucked Russian-fashion into the tops of his boots; saving the dress, a typical English squire,—such is Nicholas I., Prince of Montenegro. He is the most picturesque sovereign in Europe. He rules over a mountainous principality three-quarters the size of Connecticut, with a pastoral and agricultural population of a quarter of a million. "My country," he once said, "is a wilderness of stones; it is arid, it is poor, but I adore it! And if I were offered the whole of the Balkan Peninsula in exchange, why, I would not hear one word!" Prince Nicholas has been one of the most successful matchmakers of his time, and the late King Christian of Denmark alone did better for the princesses of his house. He is father-in-law of the King of Italy and the King of Servia, and related by marriage to half the reigning houses of Europe. When a visitor to Cetinje once told the Prince that his country was very beautiful and interesting, but that it appeared to have no valuable exports, his Highness replied, with a twinkle in his eye, "Sir, you forget my daughters."

Prince Nicholas, even by the admission of his severest critics the ablest of the Balkan sovereigns, has hitherto solved the problem of reconciling the old order with the new, and so long as he lives Montenegro will go on in the way which he has so ably marked out for her development. The Gospodar or "Lord," as his people call him, is, indeed, one of the most remarkable men of the time. He combines two qualities usually considered incompatible,—the gift of poesy and great practical common-sense. No one can understand his character, and therefore the policy of his country, which entirely depends upon his will, without taking both of these characteristics into consideration. The Prince most emphatically knows on which side his bread is buttered, and his public acts are carefully calculated toward the improvement of his political position.



But Prince Nicholas is not wholly absorbed by questions of statecraft, finding time for small matters as well as great. On one occasion, when he was leaving the country for a considerable time, he resolved to provide employment for his warriors, who strongly object to any form of work that is not warlike, and at the same time improve the wine trade of the Black Mountain. He accordingly summoned the chief men together, and in their presence planted a vine stock with his own hands, bidding them all go home and do likewise. Finding that the art of farriery was despised by the Montenegrin braves, he caused a smithy to be erected outside the palace, and there hammered a horseshoe for his haughty subjects, who were thus convinced that what was good enough for their Gospodar was good enough for them. He is utterly indifferent to formality or etiquette, and in the midst of a court procession one day he hailed the postman, whom he spied in the distance, stopping his carriage in order to seize his letters and newspapers.

The Prince, who has himself a brilliant record as a soldier, is commander-in-chief of the Montenegrin army, which, as Scharnhorst once said of Prussia, is simply "the nation under arms." Every Montenegrin of military age receives a rifle and a supply of cartridges from the government, and every man in the principality, even in time of peace, always carries a revolver, and carries it loaded, by special command of the Prince. A Montenegrin loves his weapons as his children; infants are allowed to play with the butt-ends of pistols, and a native proverb says "You might as well take from me my brother as my rifle."

All Montenegrins are men of such unimpeachable integrity and tried ferocity that their services as consular guards and bank messengers are eagerly sought throughout the Levant. It may sound ridiculous, but a Montenegrin would die to save his master's life in case of need. He gives his word to be faithful unto death, he says "*Bes a bes*,"—which means "word of honor,"—and having said that, it is far more desirable to die than to go back upon it. On the rare occasions where a Montenegrin has betrayed the life or interests of his employer he has, upon returning to Montenegro, been killed by his own people. Only one has to treat him like a gentleman; if you strike or insult him, a Montenegrin will shoot you like a dog. All the same, I believe Montenegro is the

only place left in Europe where you can get a man to die for you at \$20 a month.

#### FERDINAND OF BULGARIA.

Twenty years ago, or thereabouts, a little group of Bulgarian statesmen were seated about a table in a Viennese beer-garden. With them was an Austrian friend. The Bulgarians composed a committee which had been sent out to scour Europe for a suitable prince to succeed the dethroned Alexander. Unsuccessful in their quest, they were returning to Sofia. The acquaintance, learning their business, indicated a young officer in the white tunic and gold-laced *képi* of the Austrian hussars, who was sitting at a nearby table. "There, gentlemen," he remarked, "is just the man you want. He is Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, a grandson of Louis Philippe of France, and a cousin of every crowned head in Europe, and he is, moreover, a man of great wealth."

The committee accepted the suggestion eagerly, conferred with the Prime Minister of Austria the next morning, communicated with Stambuloff at Sofia by telegraph, and within twenty-four hours had offered the throne of Bulgaria to the young prince, who was not yet twenty-six years of age. One-and-twenty years later, at Tirnovo, the ancient capital of Bulgaria, surrounded on every hand by ruins and relics which spoke eloquently of Bulgaria's golden age, the same prince, now a man of two-score and seven, cast aside the title of "Royal Highness" and with it the Turkish yoke, and proclaimed himself Ferdinand I., Czar of All the Bulgars. The style and title he assumed was no vainglorious one, for five centuries before there was a czar in Russia, Bulgaria had adopted that proud title for her rulers. By his act he revived the kingdom of Bulgaria, which fell in 1393, and asserted his sovereignty not only over the people of Bulgaria, but over their 3,000,000 compatriots scattered throughout the Balkans.

Although a grandson of Louis Philippe, the prince has the nose of Louis Napoleon and bears a singular resemblance to the last Emperor of the French, both in disposition and character. His nose is a gratification to the caricaturist. It is so conspicuous that it answers as a trademark, and they are able to play upon it with great ingenuity. Ferdinand is altogether a clever and accomplished gentleman, a skilful politician, with an accommodating conscience, who has inherited the manners of his Bourbon ancestors as well

as their insincerity, and can wriggle out of a tight place more gracefully than any other prince in Europe.

Few outsiders have a y idea of the unpopularity of Ferdinand in Bulgaria. The main objections to him are twofold: first, his Russo-phil policy, and, secondly, his love of show and etiquette. His one aim in all that he does is to increase his personal and social position. He long desired the title of king that he might be allowed to dispense with the odious necessity of wearing a fez when he visited his liege lord, the Sultan, at Yildiz Kiosk, although he did not hesitate when he thought there was something to be gained by kneeling and kissing Abdul-Hamid's hand. It is quite conceivable that Ferdinand, of whom his relative, the Comtesse de Paris, once said that he cared for nothing except titles and orders, has sacrificed material advantages for the empty dignity of his royal crown. Meanwhile the domestic policy of the prince has been equally unpopular. The Bulgarians prize economy above all other virtues, yet every municipality which Ferdinand has visited has been obliged to run into debt, owing to the cost of receiving him in what he considers befitting pomp, and his marriage alone cost \$600,000. He never drives out unless a squadron of cavalry surrounds his carriage, and the simple peasant-farmers ask, and not without reason, why he should keep up such unnecessary state when one sees a really important sovereign like the Emperor of Austria driving through the streets with a single attendant.

The Princess Marie Louise of Parma, whom Ferdinand married in 1883, first aroused his pride and stimulated his independence. Both she and Ferdinand were inordinately ambitious to advance their position and power. Instead of being registered in the "Almanach de Gotha" as "princes," they wanted to be called king and queen, and actually had crowns made at Munich in anticipation of a favorable vote in the *Sobranje*. Ferdinand is himself a devout Roman Catholic by birth and baptism, and had promised his wife that their eldest son should be brought up in that religion, but no sooner was his wife buried in 1899 than he placed the Crown Prince Boris, a child then five years old, in charge of a Russian priest of the Greek church, who secretly baptized and is now educating the child in that faith, to which, of course, all Bulgarians belong. Ferdinand was remarried, in February last, to the Princess Eleanor of Reuss, thus ally-

ing himself with a family even more ancient than his own.

Accident made Ferdinand a sovereign; nature intended him for a student. He is never so happy as when rambling through the mountains in search of choice botanical specimens, for he is an accomplished naturalist and has catalogued nearly all the *fauna* and *flora* of Bulgaria. He is pompous, insincere, extravagant in his personal tastes, fond of glitter and display, but inordinately ambitious and a born politician, not to say intriguer. He is wont to take his guests to his summer palace at Rilo, which lies in the mountains, not far from the Turkish frontier, and show them the "promised land" of Macedonia, over which it is his ambition to rule.

But, in spite of his weaknesses and his trivialities, Ferdinand of Bulgaria looms today as the most commanding figure in the Balkans. He has made himself the ruler of a state the size of Pennsylvania, with a population of 4,000,000 people, and can put into the field 400,000 trained and warlike fighting-men, the largest percentage according to population of any country in the world. He has made himself Czar of the Bulgars, but he sees in himself the future Emperor of the Balkans. It is no idle dream. Macedonia, with three-fourths of its population of Bulgar blood, needs no urging to come under Bulgar sway. Servia sees in the Austrian annexation of Bosnia a forecast of her own fate and, jealous though she is of Bulgaria, would doubtless prefer a Balkan confederation to Austrian annexation. King Charles of Roumania is aged and infirm, and many of his subjects believe that such an alliance would strengthen their position. Montenegro and Albania would doubtless fall into line. In such a confederation lies the sole hope of Balkan integrity. Such an empire,—for Germany, remember, is a confederation of small principalities and kingdoms,—could bid defiance not alone to Turkey, but to any European power, for it could put into the field a combined army of more than 1,000,000 men.

#### THE POWER BEHIND SEVERAL THRONES.

There is yet another ruler in the Near East of whom probably not one American in ten thousand has even heard. Though he is the sovereign of no one of the Balkan states, it is he who actuates the policy of them all. I refer to the Very Amiable and Dignified Orthodox Patriarch of the East, His

Holiness Joachim III. He is one of the least-known and most interesting personalities of our time. He exercises more actual power than all the Balkan rulers rolled into one. He is the highest constituted authority of the Orthodox Greek church, and stands in much the same relation to its 98,000,000 of communicants that Pius X. does to the Church of Rome, but with this one vital exception,—that his power is temporal as well as spiritual. His spiritual sway is acknowledged by the members of the Orthodox faith from Egypt to Russia; his temporal power is little short of absolute in all the Orthodox communities of the Ottoman Empire. He is received as an equal by the Sultan and as a superior by the rulers of those nations whose state religion is that of the Orthodox church.

Joachim III. is now well past the age of three-score and ten. As is the custom among the Greek clergy, he wears his beard long, and his flowing hair is gathered in a knot on the top of his head. He lives in great state at the Ecumenical Palace of Phanar, on the Golden Horn, the imposing front gates of which have never been opened since that bloody day, now close on a century ago, when a former patriarch was hanged between them by a fanatical Turkish mob. When he goes into Constantinople he is conveyed in a golden barge of forty oars, and his official audiences are ceremonies of great state.

#### MACEDONIA'S TWOFOLD PROBLEM.

The crux of the whole Near Eastern question is to be found in Macedonia, the name which, though it finds no place in the present administrative division of Turkey, is generally given to that portion of the empire which is bounded on the north by portions of the Servian and Bulgarian frontiers, on the east by the River Mesta, on the south by the Aegean Sea and part of the Greek frontier, and on the west by an ill-defined line coinciding with the Shar range, this territory, which is somewhat larger than the State of Indiana, including the vilayet of Salonica, the greater part of the vilayet of Monastir, and the southeastern part of the vilayet of Kossovo. The population of Macedonia may, perhaps, be estimated at 2,200,000, of whom fully two-thirds are Christians belonging to various churches and nationalities. Of these Christians by far the great majority profess the eastern Orthodox faith, owing allegiance to the Greek patriarchate or to the Bulgarian exarchate.

Inhabited by a variety of races, Macedonia possesses a peculiar importance as the principal theater of the struggle of nationalities in eastern Europe. All the races which dispute the reversion of the Turkish possessions in Europe are represented within its borders. Here are centered the rival aspirations of the various states which during the nineteenth century became detached from the Ottoman Empire. The Macedonian problem may, therefore, be described as the quintessence of the Eastern question.

The Macedonian question divides itself into two categories: religious and racial. The embittered struggle of the rival nationalities in Macedonia dates from the middle of the nineteenth century. Until that period the Greeks, owing to their superior culture and their privileged position, exercised an exclusive influence over the whole population professing the Orthodox faith. All Macedonia was either Moslem or Orthodox Christian, without distinction of nationality, the Catholic or Protestant communities being inconsiderable. The first opposition to Greek ecclesiastical ascendancy came from the Bulgarians. The Bulgarian literary revival in the earlier part of the nineteenth century was the precursor of the ecclesiastical and nationalist movement which resulted in the establishment in 1870 of a Bulgarian exarchate, the firman specifying a number of districts in Macedonia to which Bulgarian bishops might be appointed while other districts might be subjected to the exarchate should two-thirds of the inhabitants so desire.

The Porte, it must be understood, exercises no jurisdiction in the internal affairs of its Christian subjects, which are regulated in each diocese by a council of the chief inhabitants, presided over by the bishop, who also acts as intermediary between his flock and the Turkish civil authorities when they have any disagreement with Moslems. Until the creation of the Bulgarian exarchate by the firman of 1870, the Greek Patriarch of the East was the spiritual,—and to a great extent the temporal,—lord of the Balkan Peninsula, the Christians being massed together under the compendious title of Greeks. Owing to the tyranny of the Greek clergy in matters spiritual and the desire of the Bulgarians for a church service read in their own tongue, there was a split in the Greek church in 1870, the Bulgarian Christians seceding from the mother church and forming a church of their own under the leadership of

the Bulgarian exarch, the Sultan intrusting to him the secular and spiritual interests of his flock. These same prerogatives were also held by the Greek patriarch as the representative of the Greek Christians. The patriarch and the exarch delegated, in turn, part of their attributes to their inferiors—bishops and priests. In this way the clergy formed a body of functionaries invested with large administrative and judicial powers. Every religious community was intrusted with the repartition of the state taxes among the members of the community, and was responsible for their payment into the state exchequer. In a word, the spiritual head of a Christian race was at the same time its civil representative before the Turkish authorities.

It will readily be seen, therefore, how the ancient racial jealousies of the Greeks and Bulgarians were rekindled by this religious schism, and a condition of the utmost danger was brought about. In those districts where the Bulgarians predominated the appointment of the local officials, schoolmasters, and priests was in the hands of the exarch; in those portions of Macedonia where there was a majority of Greeks the patriarch had full sway. Both the Greeks and Bulgarians, therefore, have instituted church and school propagandas in Macedonia, where they have waged a furious war between themselves upon the shoulders of the poverty-stricken and demoralized native population. For nearly a decade armed bands of Greeks and Bulgarians, one as bloodthirsty and cruel as the other, have roved all over Macedonia, the Greeks endeavoring to get the Bulgarian inhabitants to declare allegiance to the patriarchate, while the Bulgarians coerced the Greek inhabitants into a false loyalty to the exarchate, both parties backing up their efforts at proselytism by committing murders and atrocities of every description.

#### THE PERSISTENT RACIAL CONFLICT.

The racial animosities of the Balkan nations likewise have their common cause in Macedonia. She is the apple of discord. Every Balkan state is contemplating the conquest of this rich province and the playing of principal rôle in the destinies of the Peninsula. Since the creation of the independent kingdoms of Greece, Roumania, Servia, Montenegro, and Bulgaria there is no longer any possibility of a simple division of Macedonia among Christians and Moslems, for in Mac-

donia all these races are hopelessly intermixed. To put the position briefly, each of these nationalities is pitted against the rest, and all are equally antagonistic to their common tyrants, the Turks, against whom, however, their mutual jealousies will not allow them to combine. Though living in close contact with each other, each of these Christian nationalities maintains its own separate existence, its separate internal government, churches, customs, costume, and language.

Unfortunately, all of these races have at some distant period held more or less brief sway over some part or other of Macedonia, and these historical reminiscences, which appear of purely antiquarian importance to us of the west, are considered vital in the Balkans. Historically there is little doubt, despite the efforts of Greek and Servian writers to minimize their claims, that in the days of the old Bulgarian czars (893-1277) Macedonia was almost entirely under their sway. The Servian writers, on the other hand, tell us very plainly how the great Servian Czar Dusan (1336-1356) included all Macedonia in his vast dominions, calling himself "Czar of Macedonia, and Monarch of the Serbs, Greeks, Bulgarians, the coast and the western parts." The Greeks, of course, can afford to regard Bulgars and Serbs alike as interlopers in the country where Philip and Alexander of Macedon held sway, where later the Byzantine emperors ruled, and where even in Turkish days the Greek clergy shared power with the Ottoman officials. The Roumanian and Albanian propagandas are the most recent of the Macedonian agitations, both of these nationalities taking a hand in the struggle because of the very considerable proportion of Macedonians of Wallachian (Roumanian) and Albanian blood.

And above all these five parties there rises the Austrian eagle, ready later on to pounce down upon Salonica, whenever a suitable opportunity offers. To my mind, at least, the ultimate solution of the Macedonian tangle is that Austria-Hungary should "run down to Salonica" and occupy Macedonia, as she has already occupied Bosnia and Herzegovina, to the general advantage of mankind. Salonica will then become the greatest port in the Near East, the quickest route to India will be through the valley of the Vardar, and the thorniest of thorny questions will be solved by Bismarck's old prescription, that of converting Austria into a real *Oesterreich*, or eastern empire.



## LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

### IS AN HONEST NEWSPAPER POSSIBLE?

"CAN a newspaper tell its readers the plain, unflattering truth and pay its way?" is the question discussed in the October *Atlantic Monthly* by "A New York Editor." It is gratifying to learn that, in the opinion of this writer, "there are the most hopeful indications that we have now a sufficient public thirst for truth to guarantee a market for such a newspaper." It must not be forgotten, however, that a newspaper is, after all, a business enterprise, and that, owing to the cost of production, it cannot live without its advertisers; and although there are many independent journals in the United States, "the advertisers exercise an enormous power which only the very strongest can refuse to recognize." By way of illustration, the writer of the article under notice makes the following assertion:

Within the past three years the department stores have combined to modify the policy of at least three New York daily newspapers. One of the most extreme and professedly independent of these newspapers, always taking the noisiest and most popular line, with the utmost deference to labor unions, withdrew its attack upon the traction companies during the time of the Subway strike, on the threatened loss of its department store advertising. It has never dared to criticise such a store for dismissing employees who attempted to form a union. In other words, this paper is not independent, and in the last analysis is governed by its advertisers.

Without giving any names, "A New York Editor" presents an interesting and critical estimate of half a dozen or so of the metropolitan journals having a wide popular appeal, of which the following is a condensation:

No. 1.—Has the potentiality of being a very good morning daily. Foreign news exceptionally ample, but very badly edited. Home news fairly good. Editorial policy eminently fair,—chary of personalities, and considerate to adversaries; but the editorials, like the foreign cables, look as though they had been put in with a shovel. Fortunately, they are short.

No. 2.—By far the most interesting of the morning dailies. News handled with the single view of making it thoroughly readable. Reporting of a very high quality indeed; but a column and a half of brilliant nonsense will be given to an event with a news value of ten lines. The paper has the indispensable

note of authority; but editorials are altogether too long. Manifests persistent animosity toward many public men, and cannot speak of them without a sneer.

No. 3.—An evening newspaper; in point of honesty of purpose and high ideal occupies a position of its own. Most conscientiously edited, and appeals to a limited intellectual class.

No. 4.—The one specimen left of the machine newspaper. Lives upon its once great reputation. Both home and foreign news fairly done. There is not an editorial in it from year's end to year's end which anybody would feel obliged to read. Financial page beneath contempt. It has the reprehensible practice of including in its news columns advertising matter, which would not be tolerated in an independent newspaper.

No. 5.—The last remaining specimen of uncompromising "yellow." News extremely poor, consisting of the Associate Press service warmed up into sensational forms. Noisy methods are used to such an extent that the thing becomes one continuous shriek. Editorials occasionally able and always almost utterly without scruple or principle. Appeal to class hatred, anti-British sentiment, hatred of the orderly administration of justice are all used in a way which would disgrace the most rabid Parisian political journal.

No. 6.—Morning issue, formerly of the same yellow type, but now in a very fair way to reform. News well condensed and readable. Editorial good; but attitude on Wall Street shows abounding ignorance of economics in which only the proprietor of the paper could possibly afford to indulge. The production good, and in a fair way to become better.

No. 7.—The best handled business proposition in the New York group. The one object is to sell the paper. News collected with enterprise and displayed to advantage. Shipping news unequaled. It is the respectable competitor of the yellow journal. Editorials are not worth the name. There has been a compulsory alignment to decency in the advertising department, but its advertisements of swindling stock tipsters are a disgrace to a self-respecting newspaper.

The general deduction to be made from these examples is that no paper of the New York group combines the two indispensable qualities of popularity and authority. The ideal newspaper must have real technical merit and must make itself widely heard. Any man with a message can obtain a hearing. The people want to learn, and they can be approached in mass in two ways:

one is the public meeting, and the other is the popular newspaper.

I say popular advisedly, because we live in a country where we decide all questions, however abstruse, by counting noses. . . . If we have adopted a system which regards the nose as more important than the brain behind it, the only problem is how to make the best of our materials. We have to remember that we are dealing with a voting population which . . . is about as ignorant as could well be imagined. . . .

As an admirable evidence of the public demand for the truth, our editor points to the advent of the independent voter, "who is killing the bosses," and for whose evolution the newspapers are largely responsible, though the magazines have undoubtedly helped. Less than ten years ago "party regularity"

was the standard for voters, and those who persisted in doing their own thinking were called mugwumps, soreheads, and cranks.

What the public wants is an independent newspaper, one

which treats its reader not as a child nor a sage, neither as a hero nor a fool, but as a person . . . to be taught tactfully to stand upon his own feet. . . . A paper which gives the Senator and the shop-girl what they both want to read and are the better for reading.

Only millionaires can, however, start newspapers; but a journal of standing might be gradually remodeled on the lines indicated. "The market for excellence is inexhaustible; and the country is plainly beginning to see the sterling market value of common honesty."

## WHAT IS AMERICA WORTH?

IN all well-regulated commercial establishments there are periodical stock-takings, and balance-sheets are duly struck. In the preparation of the latter a list of the firm's or company's assets is one of the most important items. If, for any purpose, the people of the United States should wish to make out a return of their present possessions, what would be the value of them? In a word, How much is the country worth? An answer to this question is contributed by Mr. L. G. Powers, of the Bureau of the Census, Washington, to the *American Journal of Sociology* for September. As introductory to a table of values Mr. Powers gives the following interesting and instructive explanation of the nature of the possessions of which our wealth consists. He says:

They are the lands utilized for various purposes, but not the deeds, mortgages, and other paper evidences of their ownership. They are railroads, factories, mines, stores, stocks of goods, and live-stock, but not the stocks and bonds which measure the equities of their holders in the properties mentioned. They are the products of agriculture, manufactures, mines, forests, and fisheries, held as raw material for manufacture, or as food, clothing, and ornament, or as implements and machinery, but not the warehouse receipts issued to their owners.

The statisticians of the United States Census and many others have made appraisals of the national wealth, and their statements thereof are the exhibits of assets which would be used in a balance-sheet prepared for a business house. These appraisals for the year 1904 are as follows:

FORMS OF WEALTH.		1904.
Real property and improvements taxed		\$55,510,247,564
Real property and improvements exempt		6,831,244,570
Railroads and their equipment		11,244,752,000
Street railways		2,219,966,000
Telegraph systems		227,400,000
Telephone systems		585,840,000
Pullman and private cars		123,000,000
Shipping and canals		846,489,804
Privately owned water works		275,000,000
Privately owned central electric light and power stations		562,851,105
Live stock		4,073,791,736
Farm implements and machinery		844,989,863
Agricultural products		1,899,379,652
Manufacturing machinery, tools and implements		3,297,754,180
Manufactured products		7,409,291,668
Imported merchandise		495,543,685
Mining products		408,066,787
Gold and silver coin and bullion		1,998,603,303
Clothing and personal adornment		2,500,000,000
Furniture, carriages and kindred property		5,750,000,000
Total		\$107,104,211,917

Similar estimates have been prepared for each census year since 1850.

In 1850 the national wealth was estimated as \$7,135,780,228; in 1860, as \$16,159,616,068; in 1870 (estimate made on a currency basis of the time when reduced to a gold basis), \$24,054,814,806; in 1880 (on the same basis), \$43,612,000,000; in 1890, \$65,037,091,197; in 1900, \$88,517,306,775; and in 1904, as shown in the table given above, \$107,104,211,917. . . . These annual additions to our national wealth reflect three very important factors: (1) The creation of new forms of wealth as the result of human labor; (2) the appreciation in value of all property as the result of the world-wide influence of the increased and increasing supply of gold and silver which began to be felt immediately after the discovery of gold in Australia and California just prior to 1850; and (3) the appreciation of property in cities and towns due to the growth of population.

It will be seen, on referring to the table, that the most important item in the list of assets is real property. Some idea of the labor involved in obtaining the figures for this one asset may be gathered from the fact that, as Mr. Powers informs us, the Census Bureau, before making its appraisal, ascertained the ratio between the tax-list valuation and the real true value of the real property in each one of the counties and in all of the principal cities of the United States. No less than 5,700,000 farms were included in the taxable real property, the farmer being in each case his own appraiser; and all the information collected in the last fifty years shows that this return was on the whole very exact and trustworthy.

The value of railroads, street railways, telegraphs and telephone systems, Pullman and private cars, electric light and power stations, was estimated upon the basis of the selling price of bonds and stocks in the year 1904. In the case of live-stock, farm implements, manufacturing machinery, etc., the census figures were obtained directly from the owners. The manufacturing and mining products on hand were estimated at one-half those produced during a single year.

The total wealth of the nation may easily be tested by statements concerning the number and wealth of our millionaires, which appear from time to time in the magazines and newspapers.

If the statements referred to are trustworthy and the census has given a correct estimate of wealth, then the deductions usually made from such statements are correct. There is an intense concentration of wealth in the hands of a few. The millionaires own nearly as much wealth as the census shows to exist in the country. If, on the other hand, we start with the value of farms and other homes which are known to be owned by men of small possessions, the savings-bank deposits, and other known possessions of those of moderate means, and then add the lowest popular estimates of the possessions of our millionaires, we have an aggregate far in excess of the census appraisal of national wealth; and the conclusion under such circumstances is irresistible, either that the census estimates of national wealth are ridiculously small or the popular estimates of the wealth of our millionaires are greatly exaggerated.

Mr. Powers finds no evidence "that would justify either statement that our national wealth is grossly understated or that our millionaires own so large a share of that wealth as to leave the great majority without property."

## THE CURSE OF AMERICAN EDUCATION.

**B**EARING in mind the old adage "Where there's smoke there's fire," it would seem to be the fact that there is something really and radically wrong with our American system of education. In the last issue of the REVIEW we noticed an article on "The Inefficiency of the Public Schools"; and one can seldom take up a magazine or a newspaper without finding in it some disparagement of the educational methods now in vogue. According to Mr. James P. Munroe, in the *Popular Science Monthly*, the blight on American education is specialism. From one point of view, this is tantamount to saying that education is up to date; for specialism is the order of the day.

From the professor of Greek down to the "professor" who shines one's shoes, that man is in demand who is disposed to concentrate all his energies upon the learning or the doing of one thing. Even our households have become infected, for therein is to be found the very apotheosis of specialization. Even so late as the beginning of the last quarter of the nineteenth century one maid would do substantially all the work of the house; whereas, to-day the lady who condescends to burn one's beefsteak

and to parboil one's potatoes will not enter the laundry or the dining-room, while the other maid (or maids) would join the family in general starvation before so far forgetting her "place" as to cook a single meal.

But what can be expected of the rank and file of the modern world when the leaders of American life, men in the professions and in those higher institutions which prepare for the professions, have seemingly gone mad upon the question of specialization?

In Bacon's day any man, however brilliant, might "take all learning for his province," but that time is gone forever. But that does not justify the running to an opposite extreme,

the digging of a hole in the side of a small mound of erudition, getting into the farthest end of it, and maintaining that the tiny patch of sky framed by the mouth of the hole is all of the universe worth while. . . . If some man spends his whole life grubbing at some Greek root, why is he to be rewarded with titles and emoluments, and no scholastic encouragement be given to the far less erudite man who is nevertheless sending intellectual and moral roots over a wide area of human thought and life?

Mr. Munroe holds that the curse of Amer-

ican scholarship and of American education is the Ph.D. Hundreds of young fellows are starving themselves and impoverishing their parents in order to obtain this degree, which is practically essential as a key to a faculty position, "not because there is any valid educational reason for it, but because it is required in Germany and looks well in the prospectus." Having gained his degree and been placed on the teaching staff of the university, the young Ph.D., to maintain his position, has to produce something, and that quickly. He must now specialize still more, digging, like a woodpecker, into some wormhole of erudition. "This digging is politely called research, but is the sorriest counterfeit of the genuine thing."

It is these men, as a rule, who become professors and heads of departments; it is they who determine the atmosphere and the trend of the colleges; it is this type of specialist who is setting the standards of learning and scholarship for America. As a result we have our professions filled with men who can do much within the little cell of their specialty, but who are wholly ineffectual in the great world of human interests.

Only two kinds of specialists are allowable: one is the man who has such a volume of treasure to bestow that every minute of his time should be devoted to dispensing it; the other, who can concentratedly dig and who has no other ability. The number of

these is, however, comparatively limited. What most educated men need is not concentration, but expansion. At the present time we specialize our high-school youth "in battles and sieges and leave them ignorant of the great development of mankind." We send out from our applied-science schools many men "who are competent to put up a bridge, but who are absolutely unable to put up a good front among their equals."

We have been so busy stuffing our children and our students with facts and classifications that we are forgetting that the main things which they as men must know are men. . . . Whether a boy is to start in a store, in an office, or as a "drummer"; whether he is to be a minister, a lawyer, an engineer, or a doctor, his success in life depends upon his ability to get on with and to handle men.

If American education is not actually in a deplorable condition, every one must admit that we do not produce our due proportion of great men. To do so, we must make over our whole system of elementary education, so that youth, instead of being put through vast machines for imparting facts, shall be put into small classes under intellectually strong women, and especially under intellectually strong and morally strong men, who shall develop the boy's mind and character, and send him forth into life properly equipped for the battle that inevitably awaits him.

## LIMITING THE SKYSCRAPER.

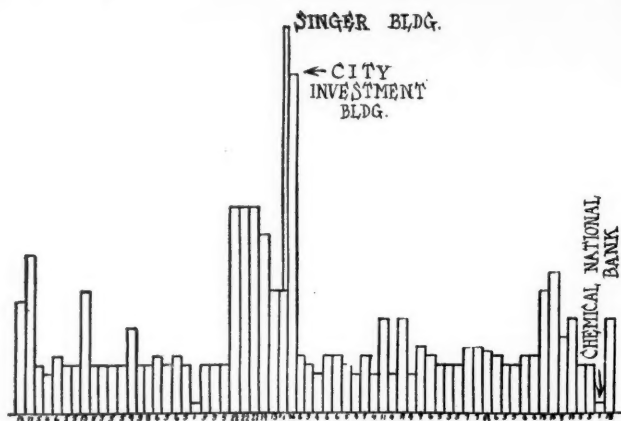
THE increasing height of the tall office buildings, commonly designated skyscrapers, in our large cities is receiving, none too soon,—considerable attention from the building departments; but few suggestions for the limitation of these towering structures have come from them. It is, as Mr. Montgomery Schuyler says, in *The Architectural Record*, "immensely to the credit of the architects that, while as individuals they may seem to have almost the most direct interest in the failure to restrict the height of buildings, as a body they are the only source from which have proceeded any practical measures for restriction." Mr. Schuyler gives an interesting analysis of two projects emanating from the well-known architects, Mr. Ernest Flagg, of New York, and Mr. D. Knickerbocker Boyd, of Philadelphia. Mr. Flagg's plan was, it appears, first proposed by Mr. George B. Post some

years ago; but it has not been worked out in such detail.

Mr. Flagg proposes, in the first place, that no building which covers more than three-quarters of the entire plot on which it stands shall be allowed to exceed 100 feet in height. For the remaining quarter of the plot he would impose no restriction in height, excepting that the height mentioned shall not be exceeded within a distance from the front equal to that from the building line to the curb line,—that is to say, to the width of the sidewalk. . . . He would allow the purchase and sale between adjoining owners of the right to build high within the limits stated. Finally, he would require absolute incombustibility in all the material and equipment of buildings that went above the first limit, and that all their visible sides should be "treated architecturally."

One result of this plan would be to restore to the business streets the cornice line "which, in old times, was automatically imposed by the five stories which were the maximum that a visitor or tenant could be ex-





THE SKYLINE OF THE WEST SIDE OF BROADWAY, FROM STATE STREET TO CHAMBERS STREET.

pected to climb." The new cornice line fixed by the limitation to 100 feet, or eight stories, would be only half as high again as the old. Though the regulation would make New York "a city of towers," it does not follow, as Mr. Schuyler points out, that it would be "a tiara of proud towers."

You may prescribe that all the sides of your tall buildings shall be "treated architecturally," and the prescription is reasonable. But to make your tall building a sightly or attractive object, this superficial treatment is not sufficient. The aspiring dollar-hunter would continue to protrude stark parallelopipeds into the empyrean, just as he does now. . . . A collection of these shapelessnesses would not be as sightly; would, in fact, be far less sightly than a grove of factory chimneys, which already taper and have form and so far comeliness. And, although it would be a very good and civic thing if the owners of the parallelopipeds were required to give them form and comeliness . . . it were a fond imagination that the individualistic New Yorker, whose rampant individualism is, in fact, in this matter, the source of all our woes, would submit to such a limitation of his right to do what he will with his own. The parallelopiped is the form which gives him most space for rental and which can be most cheaply built. To prevent him from building it would seem to him a great outrage. As the American tourist said of the doctrine of eternal punishment, "Our people wouldn't stand it."

Whether or no Mr. Flagg's means would attain his ends, everybody will sympathize with him in his desire to make a more convenient and attractive city.

The plan of Mr. Boyd, who, it should be mentioned, is president of the Philadelphia chapter of the American Institute of Architects, is a very different one. He proposes that if a builder wishes to double the height

of his permitted building, he must go back from the street for the superstructure by the depth of his substructure, and to triple his height go back again an equal depth for the second superstructure, and so on. He says:

I would limit the initial height,—that is to say, the maximum height at the established building line,—to one and a quarter times the width of the street. This would give our principal north and south streets, which are fifty feet in width, a sixty-two and a half foot high building if erected at the usual building line, which would be equivalent to a six-story

building used for residential or office purposes, or a five-story light manufacturing establishment. On our east and west streets . . . which are sixty feet wide, the height of the building, if erected on our normal building line, could be seventy-five feet, or just about one story higher.

Now, if an imaginary line be drawn from the curb of any of these streets to the top of an imaginary building, the limit of height on the normal building line, and continued into space, it becomes the line of restriction that I have spoken of. The diagonal thereby becomes the height line and regulates the front building line as well. It thus becomes apparent at once that to go up one must go back, and it can roughly be figured upon for each additional story in height that two feet must be added to the width of the sidewalk.

It will be noticed that there is a great difference between the two plans as regards their esthetic results. Mr. Flagg proposes to "citify," to Parisianize the town to which his plan is applied, and he would restore the skyline of the street fronts. Mr. Boyd, on the other hand, believes in diversity and variegation. "A skyline which is a sierra has no terrors for him; neither has a street front, which is a series of ins and outs."

Mr. Schuyler thinks that the irregularizing of the public streets might, in the hands of architects of genius, result in something far more attractive than the actual Philadelphia or the actual New York; but,

keeping in view the actual race of architectural practitioners and the reasonable probabilities of our street architecture, a regular cornice line and a street front in a single plane seem to offer a better hope of a desirable result than a saw-toothed skyline and a higgledy-piggledy of alignment, accompanied by a frontage of sidewalks of varying width.

## THE NEW PRINCIPLE IN COLONIZATION.

A MOST sane, as well as humanitarian, view of the principles which should guide the masters of equatorial Africa is given by Lucien Hubert, a French Deputy from Paris, writing in the *Deutsche Revue*. He also describes how France, on her part, is solving the problem.

A change, he contends, has of late taken place in the colonial idea. The conception of utilizing colonies has become less one-sided, less artificial.

An unexplored colony seems like an opening for the unemployed forces of the mother-country. The running of the vast and complicated machinery of a modern state requires abundant resources, and but too often these are lacking; the colonies yield the necessary addition. We occupy the virgin lands and interfere in the affairs of those imperfectly civilized states, not in order to divert our population into them or to gather a wealth which is as yet non-existent, but in order to create that wealth, to organize a social condition through our surplus labor-material. And if we clearly realize that there is no holier, more natural right than the right to labor, colonial conquest will not appear as the unjust robbing of the weak by the strong, but as a justified expropriation for a human benefit.

But is this not really expropriation? No, says M. Hubert, for "we abstract nothing from the original owners; we create an order of things calculated to give value to what before had none; to transform the fruitless soil into productive capital; finally, to convert those peoples, indolent, impotent to battle with Nature's phenomena, into an active force, obedient to a guiding hand."

This conception of the pathfinder's rôle has been aptly termed in France the "Policy of Association,"—association of the mother-country and its possession in a harmonious social system; association of European and native in the construction of a new edifice of human activity.

There where the civilized man's achievements are necessarily uncertain, since the climate renders his existence precarious; there where the native alone can perpetuate his race, association is essential to success. Protected, led, educated by the European, the native may eventually increase and prosper. He is the stuff without which nothing can be produced; we are the spirit that infuses him with life. They, these peoples, are the necessary aids, the raw forces which are to be ruled and guided, but which we must, above all, understand how to win and maintain. We recognize daily that the real treasure of our colonies consists not in the natural wealth or in great stretches, but in the native tribes, which we at first regarded so disdainfully;—man is the capital to be made productive. And that can be done only by raising his self-

esteem, his dignity, by increasing his wants, and giving him a chance to satisfy them,—an incentive which comprises the strivings and the joy of life. This policy scorns artificial and too rapid means; it seeks only enduring results, the natural fruits of a social activity. Its aim is civilization; its means, freedom enlightened by reason.

Sketching in broad outlines how France has applied these principles in its fine West-African colony, the writer continues:

To proceed from conquest to pacification, to administrative organization and economic gain, does not suffice the civilizing zeal. Western Africa with its iron pathways and modern state-machinery has ceased to be a desert, a formless, disunited mass, a chaos of wastes and forests. We have created a country. We must now create a nation. After mastering the political and economic problems there remained a final one for solution which we have now reached:—man, the source of all wealth, who had to be drawn from his environment, which made him indolent; to be given favoring conditions, but whose spontaneous force must work the final wonder. Unable to people Africa ourselves, since it is so mercilessly inhospitable to us, we must intrust another race with the high mission of maintaining the light which we would disseminate ever farther and farther. The white man will remain the guiding brain; the negro, the achieving arm. It cannot be sufficiently emphasized that colonization is co-operation. Two races unite to accomplish a work which singly neither can perform. The European possesses all the elements of success, but he cannot live on the spot,—he is master of all but himself; the African lacks almost everything,—but he has himself. Unite the two and progress is assured: the white man cannot execute; the African cannot devise or will; the former will contrive and will for him. This determines the social bond which is the basis of colonization.

The negro, says this French writer, further, is a big child, intoxicated by too much liberty. "We have given him civil rights; must we go as far as to invest him with political ones? This has at various times been contemplated, but it was not encouraged by experience." He concludes:

But if it be unwise to at once assimilate peoples that through ages of barbarism are radically different from us, we must prepare them for emancipation by having them co-operate with us. All our offices are open to the natives. We have colored teachers, secretaries, judges, accountants, assistant doctors, etc. All can be convinced that if we have established ourselves in West Africa, it was done not alone for our advantage, but with a consciousness of our duty to elevate the natives,—the cause of the disinherited has always been our own.

And, it may be reiterated, that the French ideas of colonizing tropical countries, and particularly Africa, seem to be shared to-day by the other colonizing governments.

## THE SERVANT QUESTION,—AS VIEWED IN PARIS.

“SOON there will be no one to wait on us!” Thus the beginning of a Parisian publicist's plaint upon the servant question in the French metropolis, in a recent issue of the *Correspondant*, issued fortnightly in the same metropolis. And Monsieur Gaston Jollivet proceeds with a set of grievances, one or two of which are similar to cis-Atlantic troubles:

In the first place, wages have risen very considerably during the past twenty-five or thirty years. A valet who would formerly have been satisfied with 70 francs (\$14) a month, now receives 90 or 100. The chambermaid, who would have deemed 40 or 50 francs fair compensation, can now easily earn 50 or 60. And the same progressive rate applies to the rest of the servants, especially if you add to their wages so much for wine, laundry, and gifts, allowing, besides, if you happen to have a country house, a certain sum for tips. This last named source of revenue demands special attention, having passed from an accessory detail to a main principle, as the present example shows: “My valet,” related a Parisian gentleman at his club, “was dumfounded this morning at the news that I henceforth proposed to spend four months of the year at my country place. He asked me what I thought my average number of visitors would come to. I, in my innocence, supposed he was making the inquiry because he feared there would be too much work for him, and I hastened to reassure him with the statement that I was not thinking of inviting anybody. But instead of brightening up, his face got still gloomier, and he replied, in a tone of deferential sadness, that if I were going to have no guests there would be no tips to make up for the unpleasantness of being absent from Paris for four months, and that he therefore preferred to give notice to leave. Upon which, after a deep and respectful bow, he turned upon his heel.”

Another source of revenue dilated upon by M. Jollivet is the traditional old “dance of the basket-handle.” When the French say that a cook, for instance, “makes the handle of the basket dance,” they mean that upon each article purchased at the market cook makes a small private profit by charging her mistress a little more than the article actually cost. This system of theft is a recognized national institution, sanctified by ages of existence and scarcely opposed by truly patriotic French housewives. Hand in hand with this evil goes the analogous custom, complained of by the *Correspondant's* contributor, according to which domestic servants are paid commissions by the tradesmen who sell them goods for their masters' consumption. (This practice has not yet reached America,—at least not as a general custom,—although a parallel case seems to

present itself when a wholesale merchant gives a secret bonus to the “buyer” who purchases goods for the retail merchant employing him.) But actual theft is common enough, so M. Jollivet avers, among Parisian servants, whom he describes as being chronically dishonest. And since they are at the same time carefully frugal in their personal expenditure,—

If valet, chambermaid, or cook have in the course of such a career made no rash investments, if the first has abstained from drinking much wine but ours during all his service, if the cook and the maid have not “played lady” too hard, then they may all “retire” while still young. I could mention one or two fashionable seaside resorts where “retired” servants have built handsome villas, which they let for the summer season in order to live in them the rest of the year and to stay at comfortable hotels of the capital or watering places like “ladies” and “gentlemen.”

The spirit of “I'm as good as you,”—the very phrase employed by M. Jollivet,—the exactions of the local tribe of servants, their cupidity, dishonesty, ingratitude, and insolence, incline one to hire foreign domestics; but as these, too, are in most cases unsatisfactory because of other peculiarities, there seems nothing to do but try to improve the national brand.

In fact, this author believes that the servants would improve if their masters did. All servants should be made as comfortable as possible, in the best quarters possible, so as to feel really at home; they should be treated with less condescension and more consideration; too much work should not be asked of them, and when they fall ill they should receive almost the same sort of attention that a member of the family would under the circumstances. The social inferiority of servants should never be impressed upon them by manner or speech, while, on the other hand, there is no derogation of dignity in being liberal with “please” and “thank you.” Domestics are well aware that employers of the right sort know how to be affable without being familiar; they indeed prefer aristocratic gentility to democratic roughness. “Nothing repels them so violently as the arrogance of an upstart, and their own want of gratitude is frequently founded on want of appreciation in their masters.”

Written entirely from what one might call an “upper-class” point of view, this article is none the less fair and sympathetic.

## SENTIMENTALITY IN MURDER TRIALS,—AN ITALIAN VIEW.

NOT long ago a well-known sculptor of Naples was haled before the bar of justice for killing his wife. The young woman, a public singer, had perhaps not been an ideal life companion to choose. Still, the couple had lived together and occupied the same room, where, one night, the husband shot his partner. From the moment the news was made public until the trial began, the daily papers were filled with articles describing the accused, if not as a genius, as a man of great talent and a worthy citizen. Thus he became an object of general sympathy, a great many unthinking people going so far as to consider him a victim entitled to pity,—instead of the woman he had murdered. Contrary to the usual custom, the prisoner was allowed to be taken to the "Palace of Justice" without irons, and to sit in a place of his own preference. He assumed the rôle of injured innocence, claiming immunity on the dual ground of being a "martyr to passion," and an altogether exceptional personage, both as man and as artist. For three whole days,—amid popular approval and applause which declared this culprit a hero,—he talked a sort of apologetic autobiography, narrating the story of his life down to the most insignificant details, and dwelling at great length on his professional ups and downs, his illusions and disappointments, the tale of his love and courtship, his marriage, his horrible suspicions, and so on, and so forth.

This affair furnishes a writer in the Roman *Nuova Antologia* the text for an assault upon the Italian manner of conducting trials for murder; and some of the animadversions he hurls at Italy seem to produce an echo in a language understood 4000 miles to the west of that Peninsula. But before verbally quoting Signor Garofalo, one should mention that trial by jury is relatively a novel institution in Italy,—as, in fact, Italy is itself a new kingdom,—that the jurors are chosen by lot, that they are not paid for their services, that they are not secluded as ours are; there exist rules, however, providing for exemption or rejection of certain prospective jurymen. Referring to the Neapolitan affair as typical, Signor Garofalo says:

Ought this kind of thing to be tolerated? Ought it not to be understood that an assize court is not intended for lectures upon auto-

psychology? . . . An artist considering himself a *superman* is a piece of fatuity often to be met with; but how strange that this slayer of a woman should have been acclaimed as he passed along the corridors, and applauded when he arrived in the court-room by a miscellaneous public, just as though he had performed some heroic exploit! Sympathy for a *passional* offender might be comprehensible, in some cases; one might agree to regard such an one as an unfortunate rather than as a criminal; but misfortune should evoke pity, not plaudits. Those proffered to the uxoricide were symptomatic of moral perversion, and ought to have been sternly repressed by the president of the court. . . . The president might well have taken advantage of the power given him by law to exclude everything from the proceedings tending to lengthen them unduly. He ought to have examined the accused upon the exact circumstances of the crime itself, demanding succinct answers, obliging him to state precisely *those facts which, according to the law, could be adduced in exoneration of his act of homicide*. All the long preliminary chapters of romance recited by the sculptor were entirely superfluous. . . . When the statutes compel a dozen individuals to leave their business and sit gratuitously as jurymen, one would suppose that no more would be expected of such citizens than the sacrifice of some days, or of a few weeks at most. Then, how ask that the sacrifice continue for months, indefinitely? By what right are the jurors compelled to listen, not only to what may be necessary for deciding as to the prisoner's guilt, but to all that may throw light upon the evolution of his thought, his mentality, his instincts, his character, his emotions, his whole soul-development, as if he were one of the great historical personages of mankind? Under such considerations, is it surprising if some citizens who are busy enough with their own affairs or families take refuge in any kind of excuse to escape a duty which has become so ungrateful, burdensome, and unendurable? As a matter of fact, it frequently happens that the majority of a jury is composed of inferior elements, of uncultured men unable to exercise those faculties of a highly trained mind, analysis and synthesis, indispensable for the framing of correct views upon subtle questions of what is termed "morbid psychology."

Believing that the minute probing and dissecting of a murderer's motives constitute an extreme abuse, and that such detailed exposition is usually quite unnecessary as evidence, this writer adds the averment that on Italian juries the majority belong to classes of the population standing on a low moral plane, who are only too ready to understand homicidal violence. Before introducing the jury system, opines this outspoken gentleman, it ought to have been recognized that actual representation of the people at large would be very undesirable, and that the best juries



would be obtained among men least representative of popular sentiment. And the undemocratic Signor Garofalo, who has no faith in the saying *vox populi, vox Dei*, finally points to what he considers specific local phenomena in the exculpation of so many guilty persons:

In our country, we do not content ourselves with seeking the proof of the prisoner's guilt and his responsibility therefor in the facts of the offense, but we must needs discover the most hidden moral operations which gradually transform a normal individual into a criminal. Neither is this peculiarity devoid of significance to those familiar with the ways of thought proper to the Latin race. Here in Italy a murder arouses indignation only if the motive happens to be a base one, or if the delinquent happens to cut a vile or contemptible figure. All the arts of the defense are employed to establish the slayer's innate generosity. Among our people, upon the horror of the sight of a murdered man quickly follows curiosity for the motives of the deed; and when these have been laid bare, the crime stands not only *explained* but *justified*. This because in our lower social

classes, through a deficiency of moral development, it is not yet appreciated that the killing of a man is inexcusable but in self-defense, and that it is a heinous act under any other circumstances; it is not appreciated that the first token of a people's civilization is respect for the lives of others. Thus, while the State, in Italy, refuses to acknowledge the right of putting a murderer to death by law, the notion nevertheless prevails that the penalty of death may be inflicted by a private citizen to avenge any kind of wrong. . . . In the interest of primitive justice and the diminution of crime it must be stated categorically that the method of procedure in our courts to-day is altogether pernicious. All the small particulars gleaned from the prisoner's life history are presented to the jury as an unbroken chain of causes producing a certain state of mind and determining the crime. The occurrence then appears predestined. Fate excludes guilt. The jurors feel they must forgive. Our legislation ought to have counteracted such tendencies in the first place, and the judges in charge of proceedings ought to fight against them now. But it is just they who often follow the tide, through want of sufficient force of character or through dread of unpopularity, by which they allow themselves to be overwhelmed.

## WHAT WILL BRAZIL DO WITH HER NAVY?

IN the *Leitura para Todos*, the weekly review of Rio de Janeiro, there is an article by Senhor Demetrio A. Ribeiro, treating of the naval and military resources of Brazil. The writer expresses considerable irritation at the tone adopted by certain American newspaper correspondents, on the occasion of the Hague Peace Conference. He also blames the American and European press for exaggerating the importance of every slight disturbance of the peace and of every economic difficulty in Brazil, or in the other South American states, and he calls upon his fellow countrymen to prove that, "if we are not as highly civilized as are the older nations, we are not far behind them." Referring to the new large battleships building for Brazil, Senhor Ribeiro then proceeds to state the present naval program of his country, and to urge the necessity of providing for a larger number of vessels. Referring to the financial requirements, he says:

The population of Brazil is estimated at about 22,000,000. An average annual tax of \$1.50, imposed during five years, would cover all the necessary expenses. Let us suppose that 6,000,000 inhabitants contributed their quota; at the end of the period the government would have no less than \$45,000,000 . . . with this sum, we could secure a few 20,000-ton battleships, as well as torpedo-boats and submarines,—enough to constitute a first-class navy. The program of naval construction now in process of execution is as

follows: Three battleships of 19,000 tons, at a cost of \$9,000,000 each (these are the vessels which have excited so much newspaper discussion); three express-cruisers of 3500 tons, at a cost of \$1,350,000 each; eighteen destroyers of 600 tons, at \$325,000 each; one mine-layer of 3000 tons, at \$750,000, and a few submarines and small torpedo craft, the total tonnage being 80,000 and the cost \$39,500,000.

With these the total tonnage of the Brazilian navy would guarantee us the eighth place among the greater powers, setting us before Austria. . . . The enemies of this project, when conquered by facts, appeal to the enormous burden to which the country must submit in order to carry it out. But what crushing burden would be imposed upon a nation, if a few million of its inhabitants should be forced to contribute the trifling sum of \$7.50 in the course of five years?

The writer then proceeds to treat of the military forces of Brazil, and calls attention to the great disparity between the preparations made by Argentina and those carried on in Brazil. The Brazilian War Minister has declared that Brazil will have 450,000 men on a war-footing in ten years' time, but Senhor Ribeiro is not satisfied with this, believing that at least 1,000,000 men should be trained and prepared for war. He thinks that if Brazil had an army and navy of adequate strength this would be "a guaranty not only for the integrity of her own territory, but also for that of all the South American states."

## THE OTTOMAN CONSTITUTION AND ITS EFFECT ON THE ORIENT.

**S**ELDOM, if ever, in the history of modern nations has there been a more rapid transformation of character or a more thorough change of feelings than those witnessed in the Ottoman Empire on the promulgation of a constitution. Moslems and Christians, Jews and Armenians, Greeks and Bulgarians, —in fact, all the heterogeneous elements that form the polyglot Ottoman Empire,—embraced one another, shedding tears of joy. An Arabic weekly entitled *Al Imran* (prosperity), published in Cairo, Egypt, by a Christian Syrian, has this to say:

At this moment nothing interests every Ottoman subject so much as to read the news about the constitution and hear the views of the wise concerning it. He is interested in the constitution because it has brought him out of the darkness of despotism into the light of justice and made him a man in every sense of the word after he had been led like dumb driven cattle by the hands of men devoid of right and responsibility. . . . It is clear that our new national and patriotic life has begun on the 24th of July, 1908,—that is, from the day in which the irade of our lord and master, the most exalted Khalif, and the Commander of the Faithful, was issued proclaiming the constitution and changing the absolute monarchy into a parliamentary government, which was enjoined by God, established by Islam, and practiced by the orthodox khalifs, and which was the cause of European progress and their advancement in education and civilization.

A correspondent of *Al Muayyed*, a nationalist Arabic daily of Cairo telegraphed to his paper an interesting account from Beirut, Syria, as to how the first news of the restoration of the constitution was received in that town. When the intelligence announcing the constitution came from Constantinople to Beirut the representative of the governor felt too timid to announce it publicly, and for two days people talked about it in whispers only. The dread of thirty years of despotism could not be overcome at once. It was on the arrival of the new governor, on the third day, that the news was officially proclaimed and the censorship was removed from the newspapers. Then the whole city decorated itself. Flags and bunting were strung up, branches of palm were arched across the streets, and rugs were brought out so that in some of the bazars the streets were carpeted. The shopkeepers decorated their windows, fireworks and balloons were sent up at night, and orators addressed a meeting of from 10,000 to 15,000 people. The Moslems extended the



AHMED-RIZA, THE MOST INFLUENTIAL OF TURKISH EDITORS.

(Editor of the *Mechveret*, the Paris organ of the Young Turkish party.)

Islamic salutation to the Christians: "Eas salaam alickum ya akhie" ("Peace be unto you, my brother").

The Young Turkish party, as the promoters of the bloodless revolution are called, has issued an official circular throughout the Turkish dominions setting forth the aims and objects of the party with a view to removing all doubts and suspicions created by the hostile comments of the European press in the minds of Ottoman subjects. According to this circular, the aims of the party are:

(1) The fundamental and final aim of the party is to establish the constitution of 1876. The party hopes that the European powers will co-operate with it in this respect, as they themselves tried in the past to procure reforms for the Ottoman subjects. (2) The party officially



Niazi Bey, whose telegram to the Sultan precipitated the Turkish revolution.

(He gave the signal for military revolt throughout the Sultan's dominions. The Arabic inscription on his cap reads, "Fedai Vatan"—"All for the Fatherland.")

announces that it harbors no ill feeling toward the Moslem subjects of Turkey, and that the blessings of constitutional government will be shared by all Osmanlis without any distinction of race or religion. (3) The party had recourse to harsh measures only when obliged either to meet dangerous circumstances, to put down the greatest enemies of liberty or in self-defense. (4) The party scrupulously avoided the shedding of blood, as the Ottoman Empire had suffered in the past enough loss of precious lives. There would be no wonder if the partisans of the old régime should try to cause bloodshed even now in order to discredit the Young Turkish party. (5) The champions of liberty will defend the towns and villages against the attack of foreign bands and encourage the people to strengthen the bond of union and fraternity.

The *Lewa* (the *Standard*), also of Cairo, in regard to the influence of the Turkish constitution upon the Islamic world, says:

Between Constantinople and all capitals of Moslem countries there exists a tie which joins hearts and souls, and that tie is the tie of Islam, which unites the Faithful to the center of Khilafet. There occurs no incident at Constantinople, but it touches the hearts of the Moslems either with joy or grief. Hence you will find us, the people of the Crescent, looking with an eye that does not dazzle and a devotion that does not relax at what is taking place in the streets of our second Kibleh.

India, during the past three years, has been in a state of unrest, which has reached its

climax at present. The news of the adoption of a constitution in Turkey added fuel to the fire. The *Bengalee* remarks:

When Asiatic rulers like those of Turkey and Persia have conferred free institutions upon their subjects we are entitled to ask, What is England doing in India? To say that the subjects of the Sultan and the Shah are better fitted for free institutions than the highly cultured races of India is to imply the gravest reflection upon British rule. Asia is moving; Britain is not. Asia is acting, while Britain is cogitating. But the hour for cogitation is past and gone. The time for action has arrived,—action not in the shape of repression or prosecution for sedition, but action which will pacify and conciliate and which will convince "the better mind" of India that under British rule the highest possibilities of national expansion might be attained. That is the test, the supreme test, which the better mind of India insists upon, and may God grant our rulers the wisdom to satisfy the test and thus enable England to fulfill, in the language of her most illustrious sons, "her high mission in the East."

#### A Keen Russian Analysis.

The *Vyestnik Yevropy*, of St. Petersburg, commenting on the affairs in Turkey, makes comparisons not complimentary to Russian reforms. The writer says:

Instead of high-flowing phrases and wide-sweeping programs, we see here a series of important practical acts, sugared over with sweet diplomatic forms. The keenest measures are taken and promptly realized in the name of the Sultan, leaving him the outward appearance of authority. No strife of principles interferes with the thorough and all-sided pulling down of the old régime. The strange, complicated economic system of the Padishah's court is gradually liquidating; a multitude of idle and expensive offices are abolished; hundreds and thousands of agents, living by denunciation and espionage, are dismissed; and the embezzlers of the previous ministers and court dignitaries forced to disgorge the appropriated capital and then sent to all the winds. The ex-naval minister thus had to disgorge some hundred thousand Turkish pounds [about \$500,000] in order to save himself from stern justice and punishment. The estates divided among favorites out of the imperial and court possessions were restored to the state treasury. This measure of dispensing justice on the old plunderers, free from any shadow of revenge or unnecessary severity, satisfies the public opinion with its honesty and, at the same time, restores to the state treasury a considerable portion of the sums that were embezzled.

The rôle of western European diplomacy at Constantinople, the writer in this Russian review goes on to say, will eventually change. The empire, long accounted hopelessly sick, has of a sudden undergone a radical cure and has equipped itself with determination and ability to save itself from its old chronic infirmity.

## THE SULTAN OF TURKEY AS HE IS.

NOT as he is popularly supposed to be; not as he exists in the imagination of the public, which forms its estimate of "the Sick Man of Europe" from fragmentary accounts in the newspapers and an occasional sketch or two in the "illustrateds." In the *American Magazine* for November, Mr. Nicholas C. Adossides contributes an article on the Sultan, which he says is "a record of personal observations and of private knowledge." Mr. Adossides' father, the late Adossides Pasha, was for forty-six years a high official under four sultans; and Mr. Adossides himself was for some years an attaché of the Turkish Foreign Office, and on account of his liberal tendencies was obliged to flee the country. According to this writer, the Sultan is "an invalid, a degenerate of the higher order."

Descended from sickly princes, whose lives were spent half in the gloom of a prison, half in the wanton luxury of the serai; son, grandson, and great-grandson of lazy slaves of different races; himself the child of a consumptive mother and a tubercular father, he belongs to an enfeebled dynasty that is afflicted with every kind of disease, both of body and mind, to the point of insanity.

Abdul-Hamid II. is sixty-six years old, having been born September 22, 1842; and his personal appearance is portrayed as follows:

Rather tall and exceedingly slender, Abdul-Hamid has the unstudied stoop of the consumptive. His face is wrinkled parchment, as if a thousand anxieties had left their impress there. His features, besides cruelty and cunning, denote intelligence and cowardice. The eyes, of almond shape, by far the most interesting detail of his person, are dark and piercing, aged with eternal suspicion. They denote high intellect, extraordinary intelligence, subtle refinement and pitiless cruelty. The thin upper lip and the thick lower indicate a combination of passion, irascibility, and selfishness. His nose is aquiline, and lends to his face the appearance of a bird of prey. The chin, though hidden by a beard, is weak and indecisive.

What strikes one, on reading the foregoing, is that for "a consumptive and the child of consumptive parents," sixty-six is a tolerably good old age, especially when one remembers that the Sultan has brothers and sisters almost as old as himself.

All who have come in contact with Abdul-Hamid have been impressed by one item in his personality, and that is his remarkable voice.

It is marvelously subtle and insinuating, me-

ludious in its modulations, and full of dulcet tones. With this remarkable voice he has been able to seduce nearly everybody who has approached him, even his antagonists.

Mr. Adossides recollects that his father once said: "Although I know how cruel this man is, yet I never approach him without being impressed by his finesse and charm."

Yildiz Palace, the home of the monarch, resembles a prison rather than a palace. Here the Sultan lives self-immured and surrounded by fortresses and thousands of soldiers. It is a prison, too, for the hundreds of women who compose the imperial harem, as well as for the court officials; for every one "feels the despotism, the perpetual dread that centers around the gloomy person of the monarch."

But for a prison, it is a fine one, as big as a town,—a city one might say,—built on the crest of a hill at the mouth of the Bosphorus, and containing in itself everything,—palaces great and small, kiosks, belvederes, arsenals provided with quick-firing guns, museums, observatories, mosques, lakes, shops, work-rooms, stables, etc.

The most remarkable thing about Yildiz, however, is the collection of spies, which is "the finest that could possibly be gathered together." (It should be mentioned that Mr. Adossides' article was written just before the recent proclamation by the Sultan of a constitution.)

The Sultan has shown craftiness in the selection of his bodyguard, which consists of 16,000 men. These have been chosen from the Albanians, the Kurds, and the Arabs, who hate each other like poison, so that if one of these races should plot against His Majesty, it would at once be denounced by the others. The ruler's policy consists in studying the vices of the members of his entourage, and making such use of their weaknesses, hatreds, jealousies, and discords as to render a combination against him impossible.

Espionage in Turkey may be said to have been developed into a fine art. The entire household of the monarch is full of spies; and even men of the same household and blood are pitted against each other. Mr. Adossides cites the somewhat amusing case of Munir Pasha, ex-Ambassador to France, who was directed to spy on his own father, the latter, in turn, being appointed to spy on his son. The two used to compare their reports; and, after having adjusted them "in the best interests of the family," they were sent in to His Majesty.



Mr. Adossides is insistent in his denunciation of the Sultan's personal cruelty. He cites the case of a Circassian odalisque who, as an inmate of the royal harem, had gained such favor that she was allowed to enter the Sultan's apartments unannounced.

One evening she entered as usual, and finding His Majesty asleep, she examined the various bric-a-brac scattered here and there, her attention being particularly attracted by a jeweled pistol lying on a table. At this point the Sultan, suddenly opening his eyes, asked with apparent calm: "What are you doing?"

"Nothing, your Majesty," replied the girl.

"But you are looking at something."

"Yes, sire,—it is so pretty,—this."

"And what do you call that object?"

"A pistol," answered the favorite.

"And what is a pistol used for?"

"To kill, sire," replied the Circassian in a trembling voice.

"To kill? Let me see," and picking up another pistol, he fired three times, fatally injuring the innocent girl.

The officer who told Mr. Adossides this story was on duty in the corridors when the girl's body, covered with a rug, was silently carried through the doors.

The Sultan has a deep detestation of newspapers. After expending enormous sums in inducing certain journals in France, Germany, and Austria to write favorably of himself, he has failed utterly to bring over to his side a single English paper. He has therefore sworn an undying hatred toward the press in general, and to the English press in particular. When a ruler is assassinated, no newspaper in Constantinople is allowed to chronicle the violent death.

President Carnot, President McKinley, the Empress of Austria, and the Shah of Persia all died of "an affection of the heart." When King Alexander of Serbia died, the Constantinople papers said that Queen Draga, his wife, wept and bewailed her husband surrounded by the officers of the King, and that some days later she died of grief. The assassination at Lisbon was reported as follows: "It pleased the Almighty to recall to Himself the soul of King Carlos of Portugal and his elder son."

Mr. Adossides has much to say concerning the state of Turkey under the old régime, which all well-wishers of the new Ottoman Empire will gladly regard as belonging to a closed chapter of the history of Turkey.

## THE AWAKENING OF THE SLAVONIANS.

IN Eastern Europe there is now enacting a drama of historic consequence for the Slavonic race. Bulgaria, with eastern Rumania, has declared her independence of Turkey; Serbia is eager to fight Austria for Bosnia and Herzegovina; Montenegro and Albania are restive; while the Slavonic nations under Austrian dominion rejoice at the union to Austria of Bosnia and Herzegovina that will increase the already predominant number of the Slavonic members of the Austrian Parliament. The joy of the Poles and Bohemians will be understood when it is considered that Austria if she wish to keep Bosnia and Herzegovina, must,—to satisfy Serbia and avoid war,—grant those provinces such an autonomy as Hungary enjoys, and this would entail the granting of a like autonomy to Galicia and Bohemia.

The Slavonic world has awakened, and we find these opinions reflected in its press. Hitherto, each Slavonic nation has gone its way separately,—and, thanks to this want of union among them, they have fallen under the dominion or influence of the foreigner. In latter times, however, there has arisen a movement of fraternization among the members of the Slavonic race. A visible expres-

sion of this movement was the Pan-Slavonic Congress held in Prague, Bohemia, from July 12 to 18 last, at which there gathered representatives of the Bohemian, Bulgarian, Croatian, Polish, Russian, Ruthenian, Serbian, and Slovenian nations to discuss measures for the common good of Slavondom. This movement, which began with the visit last May to St. Petersburg and Warsaw of three representatives of the Slavonians under Austro-Hungarian dominion,—the Bohemian Dr. Charles Kramarz, the Slovenian Dr. John Hribar, and the Ruthenian Dr. Nicholas Hlibovicki, the officers of the Slavonic Committee in the Vienna Parliament, to arrange the long-talked-of Pan-Slavonic Congress in Moscow,—has received the name of "Neo-Slavism" to distinguish it from the "Pan-Slavism" of the '60's of the last century. While the old pan-Slavonic movement operated under the patronage of the Russian Government and its bureaucrats,—and for the aggrandizement of Russia,—the new movement aims at a union of the Slavonic nations on the principle of their equality, liberty, and self-action, and not a union under the hegemony of any one Slavonic state.

Hitherto, the members of the Slavonic family have lived apart, and in some cases even at enmity,—a state of affairs which has been to the advantage of Germany exclusively. Of special advantage to the common foe and special damage to the Slavonic cause has been the long feud between Russia and the Poles. The last steps in the German-Polish feud,—the expulsion of the Polish language from the schools of Prussian Poland and the resulting strike of 125,000 school children; the wholesale compulsory expropriation of Polish landowners, enacted by the Prussian Diet; and the prohibition of the Polish tongue at meetings, enacted by the German Parliament,—have surrounded the Polish nation in the eyes of the Slavonic world with the aureola of its true bulwark against the eastward press of Germanism. But the oppression of the Poles under Russian dominion restrains the development of the forces of the Polish nation, thus weakening Slavondom and invigorating Germany.

The chief object of the movement to effect Slavonic union may be said to be to bring about a reconciliation of the Poles with Russia. The forces of the Polish nation, declared Dr. Kramarz before the formal conference, can develop solely of themselves, solely by their own work and organization. We summarize from a report of his speech in the *Głos Warszawski*, of Warsaw.

For the Poles to-day a strong Russia is requisite; but, for Russia also, if she care to look farther into the future and understand the dangers threatening her, there is needful a strong Polish nation developing on its soil such a culture and such an economic well-being that it may oppose the high culture pressing on it from the west. Hence, the Polish-Russian question must be solved on the basis of the granting to the Poles of the right to concern themselves about their own needs, to be under their own management, the right to broad autonomy, Russia keeping for herself what is indispensable to the preservation of her power and unity.

The task of the neo-Slavonic movement in Russia is to produce a wide current of opinion in that country that will gradually lead the Russian state upon the road of the Slavonic policy, and by liberating it from the German influences at present dominating it, make of Russia a Slavonic state not in name only, but in fact also. The views of Dr. Kramarz met with understanding in Russia among the representatives of the liberal Opposition, men of the character of Lvov, Fiodorov, Milukov, Shingarev, and Maxim Kovalevski. In opening the congress Dr. Kramarz, who greeted each delegation in its own tongue, said to the Russians:

In our congress we will not and cannot intermeddle in the internal relations of any state. All we wish is that the idea of Slavonic mutual-

ity and Slavonic brotherhood may be realized, that it strike its root deep in the heart of the whole Slavonic world; we wish that in all Slavondom there should prevail the consciousness that solely through the admission of free cultural and national development to every one of the Slavonic nations can there be solved the differences between the Slavonic nations; we wish to find the means of effecting Slavonic mutuality in practical, cultural, and economic life. We want nothing else than that all of us attain the consciousness that we have common, real interests; that all the Slavonic nations are a living organism, whose vitality is threatened when one or another branch withers; that the Russian will suffer when the Pole will succumb in the struggle with Germanism; that both the Poles and Russians would suffer if we Bohemians should not succeed in fulfilling the tasks of the Slavonic vanguard; and that all of us shall suffer if great Russia become weak.

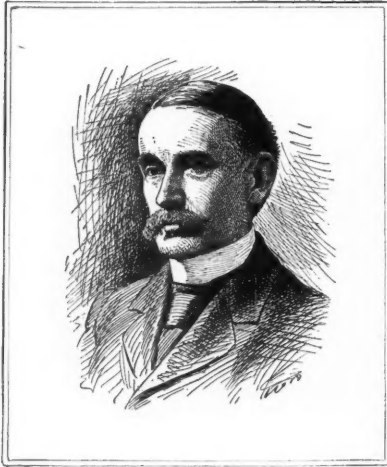
Although a number of subjects was discussed at the Prague Congress, the real axis of the discussions was the Polish-Russian question, and the most important moment of the congress was on the final day (July 18), when the Russian delegation, which was composed in considerable part,—perhaps even predominantly,—of reactionary elements, felt itself morally compelled, in view of the entire course of the congress, to move the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

The Slavonic Congress recognizes the vitality and productiveness of pan-Slavonic union, and regards as indispensable to this the removal of the discords and disagreements between the Slavonic nations, which can be effected solely by the universal recognition and application of the principles of equal rights, of the free development of every nation, by the recognition of its cultural and national separateness.

The Prague Congress voted the arranging of a Pan-Slavonic exhibition in Moscow in 1911; the organization of Slavonic cultural unions; the founding of a Slavonic bank, with a central seat in Prague and branches in St. Petersburg, as well as other leading Slavonic cities, and also in Paris, London, Constantinople, and Salonika; the organization of Slavonic press bureaus and a Slavonic telegraph bureau; the organization in all Slavonic countries of "Falcon" (Sokol) gymnastic societies; and elected a Slavonic Central Committee. The Slavonic Central Committee elected is composed of twelve members,—three Poles, three Russians, and one each of the Bohemian, Bulgarian, Croatian, Ruthenian, Servian, and Slovenian nations. Dr. Kramarz is the president of the committee, which is to see to the embodiment in life of the resolutions passed by the Prague Congress.

## EDUCATION AND SOCIALISM.

WHAT is likely to be the permanent attitude of a scientific mind toward the claims of thoroughgoing Socialism,—whether generally conservative or the opposite, and whether there will be an alliance between intelligence and discontented labor, are questions well worth asking and, if possible, answering, writes Professor John Bates Clark in the *Atlantic Monthly* for October. He admits that the following list of arguments make out an effective case for Socialism: "The beauty of its ideal; the glaring inequalities of the present system; the reduc-



PROFESSOR JOHN BATES CLARK.

tion of the difficulty of managing great industries through public officials; the growing evils of private monopoly, and the preference for public monopoly as a mode of escape." On the other hand, there are certain considerations which reduce the attractiveness of the socialistic ideal. For example, Would the abolition of private property result in the transformation of humanity into a great band of brethren?

Differences of wealth which now excite envy would, of course, be removed. The temptation to covetousness would be reduced, since there would not be much to covet. There would be nothing a man could do with plunder,—unless he could emigrate with it.

But, though there would be no differences of possessions between man and man, there would be considerable differences in the desirability of various kinds of labor.

Some work is safe and some is dangerous; some is agreeable and some is disagreeable. In industries managed by the state there would be no practicable way of avoiding the necessity of assigning men to disagreeable, arduous, unhealthful, or dangerous employments. Selections of men for such fields of labor would in some way have to be made, and those selected for the undesirable tasks would have to be held to them by public authority. Well would it be if the men so consigned, looking upon the more fortunate workers, were not good material for an army of discontent.

Again, in the new state the desire for public position would be intensified, as the prizes which would appeal to most men would be those of officialdom.

Is it in reason to suppose that the method of securing the offices would be better than it is at present? Would a man work quietly at his task in the shoe-shop, the bakery, or the mine, waiting for the office to which he aspired to seek him out? Would rings be less general than they are now? Could there fail to be bosses and political machines? . . . To the sober second thought, which mental training ought to favor, it appears that the claim of the socialistic state to a peculiar moral state of excellence brought about by its equality of possessions needs a very thorough sifting.

Granting for the sake of argument that the socialistic plan of industry would work smoothly on the political side, there are three specific consequences that might result from it: The first of these is the check that Socialism might impose on technical progress.

At present we see a bewildering succession of inventions transforming the industries of the world. Machine after machine appears in rapid succession, each displacing its predecessor, working for a time and giving way to still better devices. . . . The progress goes on without cessation, since the thing which guarantees it is the impulse of self-preservation. An employer must improve his mechanism if his rivals do so.

Now, though it is possible that under Socialism men may, from altruistic motives, be led to make inventions and discoveries, it is certain that competition compels progress at a rapid rate, whereas it is very uncertain what progress would be insured where other motives are relied upon.

Then there is the difficulty of enlarging capital.

In the socialistic state all the incomes of the year would be pooled. There would be no special and personal profit for any one. . . . Every one would be a laborer, and every one would get his daily or weekly stipend; and if capital had to be increased it could only be done by withholding some part of that stipend.

A third consequence of the socialistic plan

of industry has to do with the growth of population. Socialism proposes to place families in a condition in which children are maintained without cost to parents. Now if the state should provide for children from their birth to the end of their lives, the particular influence that puts a check on the size of families would be absent.

Leaving the unfavorable possibilities of Socialism, "which bulk large in an intelligent view," Professor Clark suggests a study of the present industrial system and its tendencies. Here the testimony of facts is convincing.

There is not only progress but a law of progress. . . . Mere labor will have increasing power to create wealth, and to get wealth, as its methods improve and its tools more and more abundant. This will not transform the working-

man's life in a day; but it will give him tomorrow more than he gets to-day. It will enable his own efforts to raise him surely and steadily toward the condition of which he dreams.

There are difficulties to be surmounted, one of the greatest of which is the vanishing of much competition.

The eager rivalry in perfecting methods and multiplying products, which is at the basis of our confidence in the future, seems to have here and there given place to monopoly, which always means apathy and stagnation. We have before us a struggle to keep alive the essential force of competition; and this fact reveals the very practical relation which intelligence sustains to the different proposals for social improvement. It must put us in the way of surmounting those evils which mar the present prospect. Trained intelligence here has its task marked out for it: it must show that monopoly can be effectively attacked, and must point out the way to do it.

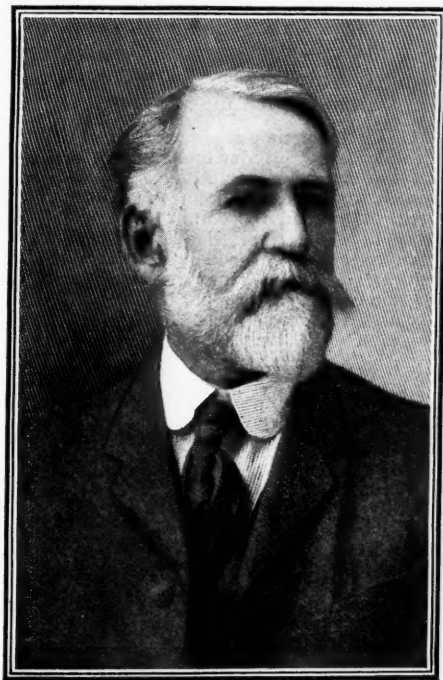
## SCHOLARSHIP AND PHYSIQUE.

"IF there is any truth in statistics, the world's work and greatest achievements are to be attained by the men as a class who have the best brains in the best bodies." This is the conclusion arrived at by Prof. D. A. Sargent, of Harvard University, after a series of exhaustive investigations, the details of which he publishes in the *Popular Science Monthly* for September. When, in 1893, Dr. W. T. Porter, now professor of comparative physiology in the Harvard Medical School, reported that, after examining 30,000 children attending the public schools of St. Louis, Mo., he found that the pupils in the higher grades were on the average taller and heavier than those in the lower,—in other words, that the brightest children were the strongest physically,—many teachers were inclined to doubt the accuracy of his assertion.

It is of great scientific interest, therefore, to note that Porter's conclusions have since been confirmed by observations made by Hastings in Omaha, by Byer in Cambridge, Christopher in Chicago, Roberts in London, Burgenstein in Vienna, and by Leharzig in St. Petersburg. In the face of such a body of concurrent statistics from different parts of this country and Europe, no one can doubt for a moment the natural relationship between a vigorous brain and a vigorous body.

Not with growing youth only is this relationship of mind and body to be found, but it appears to be true of all classes of individuals when taken collectively. In Eng-

land, for instance, the two extremes of brain power may be said to be represented by the fellows of the Royal Society and the professional class as the highest and by lunatics, criminals, and imbeciles as the lowest. It has been ascertained that between these two



DR. DUDLEY A. SARGENT.



classes there is a difference of 4.88 inches in average height and of thirty-seven pounds in average weight in favor of the former. It has also been demonstrated that conditions that affect one class of persons in England may be said to affect in a similar way the same class of persons in America. In order to ascertain whether among college students,—"who may be said to represent the intermediate class on the way from growing youth to men of intellectual eminence and distinction,"—the highest in scholarship would have also the best physiques, Professor Sargent has compiled from his statistics at Harvard University the following interesting table:

Group.	No. of obser- vation.	GROUPS ON WHICH OBSERVATIONS WERE MADE.	Height. Inches.	Weight. Pounds.	Str'gth.
1	240	University Crew from 1880 to 1900.....	69.9	152.1	625
2	295	University Football from 1880 to 1900.....	69.5	157.6	652
3	505	Lawrence Scientific School from 1902 to 1906.....	68.7	143.3	680
4	530	Academic Department from 1904 to 1906.....	68.7	140	650
5	300	First Fifty Strong Men from 1893 to 1900.....	68.5	151	960
6	77	Honor Scholarship Men, Group I., 1899 to 1906.....	68.5	134.5	550
7	300	Honor Scholarship Men, Groups I. and II., 1899 to 1906.....	68.3	135.6	550
8	232	Honor Scholarship Men, Group II., 1899 to 1906.....	68.1	135.6	550
9	84	Stipend Scholarship Men, Group III., 1899 to 1906.....	67.9	135.6	560
10	500,000	Average American in 1880 (Army Standard).....	67.7	136.05	490
11	1,000	University Students in 1880.....	67.7	135.2	490
12	108	Stipend Scholarship Men, Group I., 1899 to 1906.....	67.7	130.1	530
13	109	Stipend Scholarship Men in early eighties.....	67.5	132.3	420
14	431	Stipend Scholarship Men, Groups I., II., III.....	67.5	131.2	540
15	178	Stipend Scholarship Men, Group II., 1899 to 1906.....	67.1	130.1	530

It will be noticed that the average weight and height of the Harvard student were about the same as those of the American youth (from twenty-one to twenty-six years of age) who entered the army in 1860.

At the present time the average student is an inch taller and from four to eight pounds heavier than the average student of 1880, while his strength has increased from 490 to 650 and 680, a gain of 140 and 190 points. In 1880 only 50 per cent. of the Harvard students would have surpassed the height and weight of the army average. To-day over 65 per cent. would pass that standard. This is a most remarkable uplift in growth and development . . . in twenty-five years.

Further, "the Scientific School students are heavier and stronger than the academic students, a fact frequently referred to by the late Professor Shaler."

Without following Professor Sargent through his analysis of the above table, we may quote some of the more important of his observations on the students of to-day. He says:

The diminutive weight upon the part of all scholarship men may be accounted for in several ways. . . . In order to meet the demands of the present scholarship standard, it is necessary to hold oneself down to many hours of highly concentrated and long-sustained mental

effort. . . . The body for the time being is literally being starved in order that the brain may be surfeited. If this intense mental activity is followed by a moderate amount of physical exercise . . . no harm follows from hard study. . . . If to intense mental application are added worry, fear of failure, loss of sleep, or great emotional strain,—then mental work soon becomes exhausting.

When students are asked why they do not give more attention to the upbuilding of their bodies, they invariably answer: "We have no time for it." While this is true in many instances, Professor Sargent says that

in the majority of cases the answer of "no time" means that these men do not regard health and physical vigor of sufficient importance to work for it; or, if they do, they fear that while they

are taking time for improving their bodies, their nearest rivals are at the everlasting grind that will give them possession of the much-coveted scholarships. Here is an anomalous condition.

While the physique of athletes and the average student has greatly improved during the past twenty-five years,

the physique of all the scholarship men of to-day is not only below the average student of the present time, but the physique of the stipend scholarship men is actually below that of the average student of 1880.

There are attracted to the college and universities two distinct types of young men, who may be termed scholars and athletes. These are naturally antagonistic, and both pursue the means of education and training as though they were ends in themselves. "The consequence is superior physiques with mediocre mental ability in one class, and inferior physiques with fine mental attainments in the other."

A large part of the athletic class will fail in the race for life for want of better trained minds, while an equally large class of scholarship men will be eliminated from the struggle for the want of more efficient bodies. What is the college doing to even up the chances of these two classes in their preparation for their life's work?

As most colleges now require ath-

letic students to attain a certain grade in mental pursuits before they can contend for athletic honors, Professor Sargent asks: "Would it not be altogether desirable for

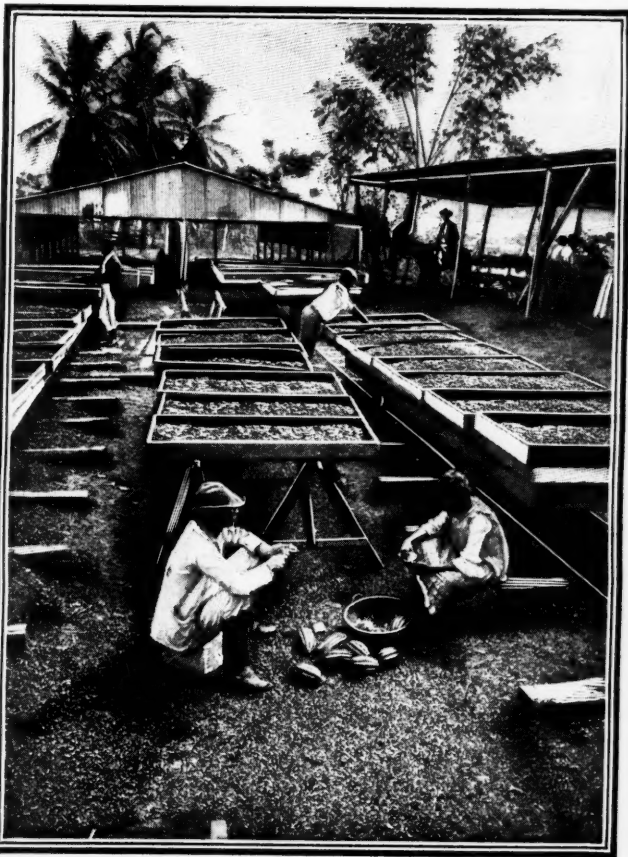
these colleges to require all scholarship men to attain a certain standard in their physical work before allowing them to compete for honors in scholarship?"

## CACAO,—COMMONLY KNOWN AS COCOA.

**C**OCOA (to use the English form of the word) is one of those articles in the dietary of man concerning which a widespread ignorance prevails. Ask at random half a dozen persons, "What is cocoa?" and one may count on being told either that it is the product of the cocoanut palm, or that it comes from coca, the Peruvian plant, which is used by the Indians to sustain them on long journeys. Both answers are, of course, absolutely erroneous: for the cocoa (properly coco) palm produces only the cocoanuts, containing the so-called milk; and from coca is derived the drug cocaine so largely used in medicine, and so much abused by the unfortunate victims of the cocaine "habit." This confusion, so prevalent throughout the English-speaking world, would be avoided by using the correct word, "cacao." As pointed out by a writer in the *Bulletin of the International Bureau of the American Republics* for September, the latter term is in commercial and domestic use throughout Latin America, it is the naturalized expression in the East Indies, and it will be understood even in Japan. Incidentally, it may be mentioned that chocolate is the original cacao. The *chocolatl* of the Aztecs, "in the language of the aboriginal Mexicans it meant water, that is, a drink,—from choco, which became under the Spanish tongue cacao."

The cacao plant tree

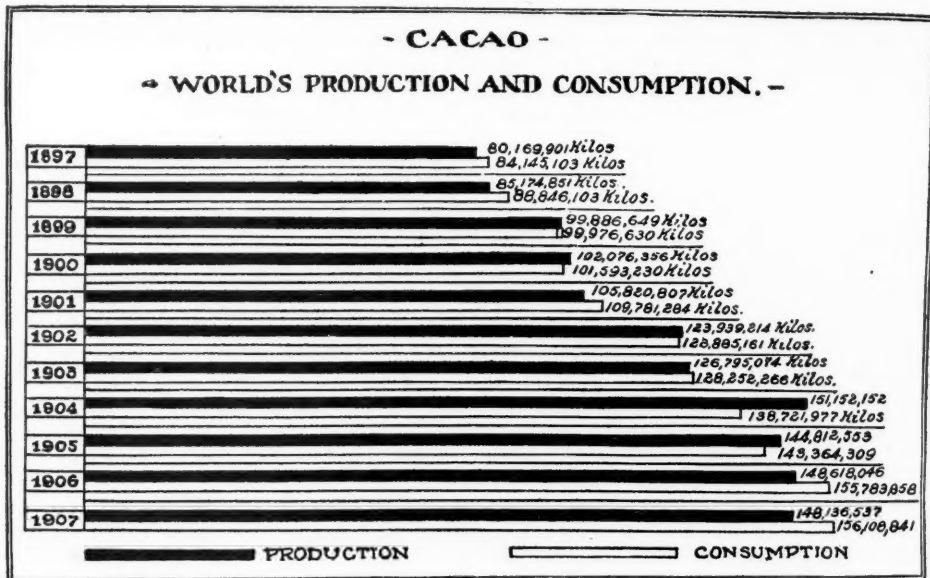
is indigenous to Mexico, Central America, and certain areas of South America, and the cultivation of it is limited to countries situated between twenty degrees north and twenty degrees south of the equator. The altitude of cacao plantations must not exceed 2600 feet; and whether the plant is grown in Mexico, Ecuador, or Ceylon, three things are essential to success,—viz., a moist atmosphere, with a temperature ranging from 70° to 90° F., good drainage, and shade.



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CURING AND DRYING COCOA BEANS.

(The beans are "shelled," like peas, from the pod.)



It is not a hardy plant, capable of fighting against odds in a tropical forest; wherever it has been found in its wild state, it has been under the protection of a taller tree that kept off both the fierce rays of the sun and the destroying blasts of the hurricane. These natural safeguards must therefore be preserved on a plantation.

Cacao trees are planted twelve to twenty-four feet apart. A small crop may be expected at the end of the fourth year; but maturity is not reached till the tenth year, after which the fruit is considered the finest.

Agricultural conditions having been successfully met, the commercial problem comes up for solution. This involves the best treatment of the bean, so that it shall produce the best chocolate and the most nutritious cocoa.

The fruit in which the seeds are buried is a melon or cucumber shaped pod, seven to ten inches long and three to four and a half inches thick. . . . The interior is divided into cells, each containing a row of seeds. . . . These are the cacao beans or the raw cacao of commerce.

When the pods are ripe,—a picking usually takes place twice a year,—they are severed from the branches by skilled gatherers, who reach up to them with a long, pruned-shaped knife so arranged that it can cut off the ripe fruit without injuring the adjacent green pods. The gathered pods are left on the ground for a day or so, when they are cut open; the seeds are then taken out and carried to the place where they are cured or sweated. The older plan was to spread the seeds in shallow pans exposed to the sun; but later methods require expensive buildings. Curing consists of two steps, the first being fermentation and the second the drying.

It is a curious fact that the consumption of cacao has no relation to the source of supply or to markets in which it is sold. Unlike coffee, where the bean is the direct source of the drink, cacao has become a factory product.

When the beans arrive at the factory in Holland, Spain, or the United States, they are blended to get the best smoothness and richness of taste. This is a matter of skill and judgment, and upon the blend depends the character of any particular brand. The beans are next roasted, also a critical process; then they are crushed and the shells winnowed from the nibs. These nibs contain the real flavor. They must be ground to the fineness of flour, and at the end of this reduction process they have become a viscous liquid like molasses. This liquid condition is due to the presence in the nibs of an oily substance called "cocoa (cacao) butter." . . . The difference between chocolate and cocoa, as it is known to the trade, is due to this cacao butter. It is retained in the chocolate, but for cacao it is squeezed out of the pulverized nibs.

One fact in connection with cacao is that "its production seems in general to lag behind consumption," or, in other words, popular taste throughout the world is being educated up to chocolate and cacao faster than the supply increases. In 1897 the world's production and consumption were, respectively, 80,169,901 and 84,143,103 kilos; in 1907 they were 148,136,537 and 156,008,841 kilos. In the latter year Spain consumed 5,638,239; England, 20,159,472, and the United States, 37,526,525 kilos.

## DELUSIONS CONCERNING ALCOHOL.

THE present is pre-eminently an iconoclastic age. In almost all the fields of science, theories and systems that for years have received the support of many wise and skilled men of the day have been overthrown, swept away, and relegated to the limbo of antiquities. The latest recruit to the ranks of the iconoclasts is Dr. Henry Smith Williams, who in *McClure's* for October, coolly tells us that many of the most cherished beliefs concerning alcohol are delusions, pure and simple, and have not the semblance of a foundation in fact. So sweeping are this writer's statements, so remarkable are the evidences he has accumulated, one cannot help thinking that the Prohibition party could scarcely have done better than to have added the article to its campaign literature. Regarded as an attack on the drinking habits of the community, it may be truthfully described as a series of knockdown blows. It had very generally been supposed that alcohol was a stimulant; that it promoted digestion and the heart's action, increased muscular activity, and even fortified the mind. Those who hold to such ideas have been living in a fool's paradise.

The new evidence seems to show that, in the final analysis, alcohol stimulates none of these activities; that its final effect is everywhere depressive and inhibitory (at any rate, as regards higher functions) rather than stimulative; that, in short, it is properly to be classed with the anesthetics and narcotics.

Bearing in mind the fact that more than 1,000,000,000 gallons of alcoholic beverages are consumed each year in the United States, the grounds for this new view should be of interest to every citizen.

Dr. Williams makes the general statement that, as regards digestion, experiments show that while alcohol undoubtedly does stimulate the flow of digestive fluids, it also tends to interfere with their normal action; "so that ordinarily one effect neutralizes the other." As concerns the heart, "the ultimate effect is to depress, in large doses to paralyze, that organ." Most important of all, as regards muscular activity, "the experiments show that alcohol does not increase the capacity to do muscular work, but distinctly decreases it."

Doubtless this seems at variance with many a man's observation of himself; but the explanation is found in the fact that alcohol blurs the judgment. As Voigt remarks, it gives not strength, but at most the feeling of strength.

A man may think he is working faster and better under the influence of alcohol than he would otherwise do; but rigidly conducted experiments do not confirm this opinion.



DR. HENRY SMITH WILLIAMS.

On this point Dr. John J. Abel, of Johns Hopkins University, says:

Both science and the experience of life have exploded the pernicious theory that alcohol gives any persistent increase of muscular power. . . . It is well understood by all who control large bodies of men engaged in physical labor, that alcohol and effective work are incompatible.

## ALCOHOL AS A BRAIN STIMULANT.

Dr. Williams cites the eminent physicist, Von Helmholtz, who declared that "the very smallest quantity of alcohol served effectively, while its influence lasted, to banish from his mind all possibility of creative effort; all capacity to solve an abstruse problem." Professor James claims that "the reason for craving alcohol is that it is an anesthetic even in moderate quantities. It obliterates a part of the field of consciousness and abolishes collateral trains of thought." In Germany many practical experiments have been made to test the basal operations of the mind. In one of these the subject sits at a table with his finger upon a telegraph key.

At a given signal,—say, a flash of light,—he releases the key. The time that elapses between signal and response . . . is called the simple or direct reaction-time. . . . Exner found that when an individual had imbibed a small quantity of alcohol his reaction-time was length-



ened, though the subject believed himself to be responding more promptly than before.

Other experiments tested more complicated mental processes. The subject would place a hand on a telegraph key, right and left. A signal would be given for one key by a red light, and for the other by a white light. After the ingestion of a glass of beer there was a marked disturbance of the mental processes. The keys would be released more rapidly than before the alcohol was taken, but the wrong key would be pressed much more frequently.

#### EFFECT OF A BOTTLE OF WINE A DAY.

Kürz and Kraepelin estimated that after consuming eighty grams of alcohol to a man for twelve successive days the working capacity of that individual's mind was lessened from 25 per cent. to 40 per cent. Smith found that after the same period the power to add was impaired 40 per cent., and the power to memorize was reduced 70 per cent. Forty to eighty grams of alcohol are equal to a half-bottle or a bottle of ordinary wine. Professor Aschaffenburg, referring to these experiments, points the obvious moral:

The so-called moderate drinker, who consumes his bottle of wine as a matter of course each day with his dinner,—and who doubtless would declare that he is never under the influence of liquor,—is in reality never actually sober from one week's end to another.

#### LOSS IN WORKING EFFICIENCY.

Professor Aschaffenburg conducted a series of experiments on four professional typesetters, extending over four days. The first and third days were observed as normal days, no alcohol being given; on the second and fourth days each worker received a little more than one ounce of Greek wine.

A comparison of the results of work on normal and on alcoholic days showed, in the case of one of the workers, no difference. But the remaining three showed greater or less retardation of work, amounting in the most pronounced case to almost 14 per cent.

Dr. Williams gives the results of many other interesting experiments, which we have not space to reproduce. He addresses the concluding paragraphs of his paper to the "moderate drinker":

I am bound to believe, in the light of what science has revealed: (1) That you are tangibly threatening the physical structures of your stomach, your liver, your kidneys, your heart, your blood-vessels, your nerves, your brain; (2) that you are unequivocally decreasing your capacity for work in any field . . . (3) that you are lowering the grade of your mind, dulling your higher esthetic sense, and taking the fine edge off your morals; (4) that you are distinctly lessening your chances of maintaining health and attaining longevity; and (5) that you may be entailing upon your descendants yet unborn a bond of incalculable misery.

### THE SPANISH WOMAN AND HER INFLUENCE.

A NEW light on or rather a clearer insight into the character of the Spanish woman is given by Havelock Ellis in an article in a recent issue of *España Moderna* (Madrid). Mr. Ellis does not neglect to speak of the Spanish woman's beauty because he examines her character—on the contrary. She is the most beautiful woman in the world, he says. Not only does she possess a good figure, a wonderful complexion, fine features and brilliant eyes, but her beauty lies in her walk more than in anything else:

The Spanish woman's walk is dignified and her gestures are sober and grave as those of a priestess carrying the sacred urns . . . yet withal, she possesses the gracefulness and the agility of the feline whose body is intensely alive, and yet whose movements are harmonious and measured.

It is a mistake to imagine that the Spanish woman is carried away by what the French call "temperament." "She has very little of it. Doubtlessly she has great capac-

ity for passion—her mysticism, fervor and tenacity prove that sufficient,—but the very intensity of her character prevents her from being emotional." The typical Spanish woman is very independent; her attributes are strength and sweetness; she is always calm and self-possessed, and in her dealings with men "her behavior, although unrestrained and pleasant, nevertheless always carries the stamp of that inner serenity and self-control." She expects and receives a great deal of attention from the opposite sex, yet rarely does this lead "to more than an exchange of compliments." The Spanish woman wants many admirers around her, for "she likes to choose, not to be chosen." This independence does not cause astonishment in Spain.

Perhaps that is why unmarried women with children are not looked down upon as they are in other countries, while there is in Spain a relative absence of that social slur which is usually cast on illegitimate children. Doubtlessly this is due to a survivance of the primitive con-

ditions of the matriarchat to which Spaniards have clung so tenaciously. The habit of legitimate children using their mother's name in preference to their father's, as is often the case, reveals the absence of any arrogant predilection for the paternal side. . . . As early as the fourth century Spanish women insisted on being allowed to retain their maiden name after marriage,—the Synode of Elvira had attempted to take away this privilege,—and the great Spanish painters, Velásquez, for instance, are known only by their mother's name. Even at the present day it is customary to use both parents' names. . . . It is interesting to observe that in a country which has always been considered the home of fanatical Catholicism, the women, ever since medieval times, have had certain liberties which those of free Protestant countries never have enjoyed and never thought of enjoying until recently.

All through Spanish history woman was held in great respect. "She was on a higher plane than man and her interests were his interests; she could devote herself to whatever pleased her most, and she often assumed responsible governmental positions,"—Concepción Arenal,—for instance, dressed as a man in order to study at the university and her husband never opposed her plans. She won fame as a poet, novelist, and as a lawyer, while she also was in charge of public affairs at Seville. Emilia Pardo Bazan, Spain's greatest writer, deploras "that men have received all the rights and women all the duties" under the present constitutional system, but this is a "transitory phase due to modern political conditions. Spain adopted the English parliamentary system to which she was not accustomed, and which she has not been able to assimilate." . . . The campaign for votes for women has met with little success,—not, however, on account of indifference to national affairs, but "male suffrage" is nothing but "an indecorous farce" existing in theory, but not in practice; so why should women wish for it? But as soon as "the political upheaval enters into a more vital phase women certainly take a natural and inevitable part in the national life for which they are so admirably qualified."

In spite of the church and its conservatism, "Spanish women have very advanced political and also religious ideals, as Perez Galdos showed in *Electra*. To take Mérimée's *Carmen* to be the portrait of a real Spanish girl is absurd. Doubtless *Carmen* has certain traits in common with the gypsies, but neither the ordinary working girl nor the *cigarrera* have any resemblance with the famous heroine. They are sensible and hard-working, and if married, dutiful wives and mothers.



SEÑORA EMILIA PARDO BAZAN.

(Novelist and reformer, "the most eminent and typical of living Spanish women.")

The writer of the article in question records the following episode, which he considers typical:

A few years ago in Barcelona a succession of strikes caused the authorities to apply the martial law. Many collisions occurred between the people and the troops . . . and at one of these . . . the soldiers were gradually beating the populace away. Suddenly a young working girl, sprung from no one knew where, appeared at the head of the rebels. . . . She cheered the discouraged and organized the others, called the people together and showed them how to act, and then she disappeared again without any one knowing whence she came or who she was.

Spanish women receive a most rudimentary education, and many do not know how to read or write. "But there is perhaps no country in the world where one can more clearly see of what slight importance this really is." The woman of the lower classes who scarcely knows how to sign her name often shows more tact and understanding than many of her more educated sisters in other countries. Higher education is, however, open to women in Spain, and those who feel the desire to study can do so as freely as men. Comparatively few avail themselves of this opportunity, however; the semi-oriental traditions still have a certain effect on social conventions, and it takes an unusual amount of courage to brave public opinion.

## CO-OPERATIVE TRADING IN ENGLAND.

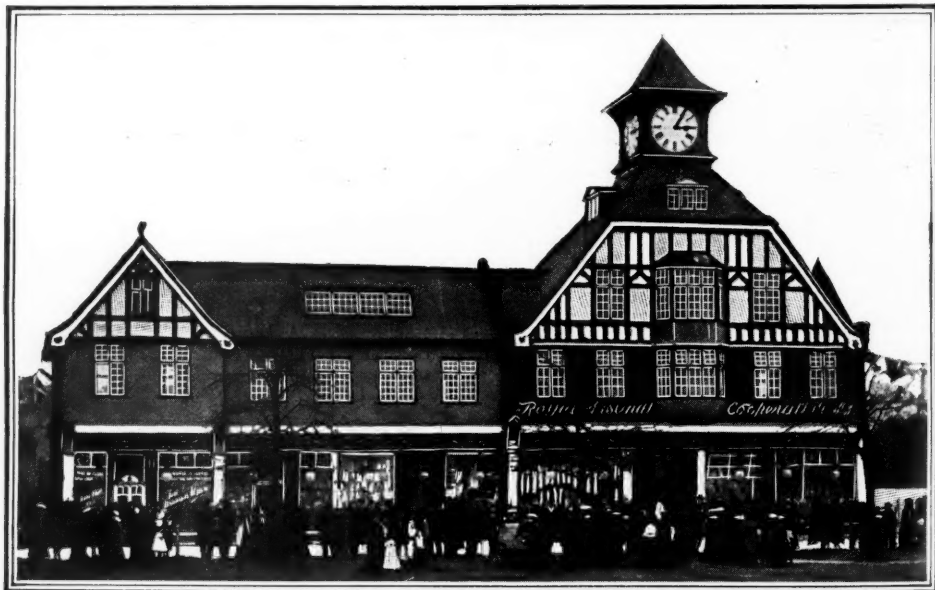
FROM a meager capital of a few dollars, accumulated from small weekly payments by twenty-eight weavers in a small manufacturing town in the north of England, who formed themselves into a society to supply their families with the necessities of life, to 2262 co-operative retail organizations, with 9,000,000 customers, and an annual turnover of \$750,000,000, such is the development of co-operative trading in the British Isles, set forth in *System* for October by Mr. J. W. Stannard. The principles of co-operation had been expounded to the masses by Robert Owen as long ago as the beginning of the eighteenth century, but it was not until 1844 that the real foundation of the movement was laid in England. In that year the British workman was experiencing "bad times." The extensive introduction of machinery had displaced manual labor to a considerable extent, and in consequence there was much unemployment. Owing to the operation of the corn laws, the price of bread was exceptionally high. It occurred to some weavers of Rochdale that now was the time to put into practice Owen's plan of abolishing "profit upon cost."

A meeting was held, and it was decided to form a society for the purchase and distribution

of goods for the benefit of the members, returning to each a portion of the "profit upon cost" included in the retail selling price. . . . As the *Rochdale Equitable Pioneers*, the society began to lay the foundation of that imposing structure which Lord Rosebery has so aptly named "a state within a state."

The article under review, which is the first of a promised series, is mainly devoted to the operations of the Royal Arsenal Co-operative Society, of Woolwich, a suburb of London. As is generally known, at Woolwich is located England's great arsenal, which employs from 8000 to 16,000 men, according to whether her army is on a peace or a war footing. As a result of workshop discussions among these men, a meeting was held at Woolwich early in November, 1868.

They decided to form a co-operative society on the lines of the pioneer society at Rochdale, and organized the Royal Arsenal Supply Association, now the Royal Arsenal Co-operative Society. The amount of each member's share was limited to \$5. Twenty members paid subscriptions, which totaled less than \$25. Further subscriptions were received the following week, which brought this small capital up to nearly \$40, and on this a start was made. The first purchase was a chest of tea, and was followed by purchases of butter and sugar. A small workshop in the house of the secretary was the first store. The bench, covered with American cloth, served as a coun-



CROWD WAITING FOR THE OPENING OF THE NEW CO-OPERATIVE STORES AT PLUMSTEAD COMMON.  
(This store, like all society branches, is built with a land allowance for extension at a later date.)



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW LOOKING NORTH FROM BOSTALL HEATH, OF THE MAGNIFICENT BUILDING ESTATE OWNED BY THE WOOLWICH SOCIETY.

(It is connected with London by the County Council tramways. The River Thames is visible in the distance.)

ter, and the bed of the lathe as a desk for the secretary and treasurer. . . . The "store" opened for business on Saturday evenings only.

On July 15, 1873, the increase of business had rendered necessary the engagement of a regular salesman, and goods were sold in a regular store, which was opened daily.

A remarkable fact concerning the early years of the society is, that not until 1878,—ten years after its foundation,—were any salaries paid to officials. By this time the sales had reached the total of \$125,000.

Up to this time the whole of the secretarial work had been performed by one of the members who was an employee at the arsenal, and who occupied his evenings with the work of the society. At this time, however, he was persuaded to devote his whole time to the society's work. As the business grew, new departments were added: in 1876 a bakery was opened; two years later the sum of \$500 was voted for the establishment of a library and reading room for the use of members; tailoring and shoemaking departments were added in 1879; a butchery department in 1884; a furnishing department in 1885; a farm and coal department in 1886; milk, fruit and vegetable departments in 1887; a confectionery department in 1893; and a works department, which has since erected all the society's houses and new stores, in 1896. . . . At the bakery an average of 86,000 loaves a week are made, besides cakes and pastry for the society's stores.

The society does not confine itself to selling groceries, meats, etc. It has entered the real-estate field. In 1886 a farm of fifty acres was bought, and ten years later 150 acres were added thereto. On this land 680 modern residences,—all of them sold to members,—

have been erected. Members are enabled to buy homes on easy payments; and as the society has acquired powers to engage in the insurance business, all the residences of the members (their furniture also) are insured by the management.

The ultimate control of the retail society is lodged in the members, who elect a managing committee of nine directors. Naturally the great competitors of the society are the large dry-goods stores, to compete with which it is necessary for the society to maintain the lowest possible prices and to insure delivery facilities as well. Especial care is used to make the society's stores as attractive as possible. In one of the large branches extensively fitted barber shops have been added for men and women, respectively.

The minimum number of shares allowed to each member is two. Exceptional inducements are offered to prospective shareholders.

Initial deposits of only 12 cents on each \$5 share are required, together with 12 cents for the member's card. Thus membership can be obtained for an initial payment of about 36 cents; and the bonus due at the end of each quarter can be utilized for the paying of the balance due on shares.

This bonus varies according to the district in which the society is located. Where the local competition is slight, and good prices can be maintained, as much as 20 per cent. on every \$5 worth of goods purchased is paid quarterly. In other districts as low as 6 per cent. is paid.



At the close of 1907 the society had a total membership of 26,935, a capital of \$1,500,000, and sales exceeding \$2,500,000.

In illustration of the benefits of the retail society, the *System* writer takes the case of a member of the Woolwich concern who spends an average of \$2.50 weekly at the society's stores.

Supposing that no further payments (beyond the 25 cents for membership and two \$5 shares)

were made by the member, and the bonus on his purchases of \$2.50 worth of goods per week were allowed to accumulate, he would, in nine years' time, have to his credit more than \$100; and in twenty years' time would practically have \$500 to his credit, which he could withdraw at any time, and this without the payment of any more than the 25 cents necessary to secure his shares.

Is it any wonder that co-operative trading is a success?

## CHURCH AND STATE IN THE PHILIPPINES.

**I**T is little more than ten years since the United States land and sea forces, co-operating, bombarded and took Manila. To-day it is possible to write of an independent Philippine church and also of the work done by the first Filipino Assembly. Authoritative information concerning the former was first furnished to western readers by Señor W. E. Retana, in his article "La Iglesia Filipina Independiente," which appeared in *Por Estos Mundos* for April last, and a review of which is contributed by Mr. R. T. House to the *Open Court* for October.

It was in political rather than religious exigencies that the Philippine church had its origin. As in other lands, the Spaniard in his rôle of conqueror, asserted his superiority over the Filipino in religious as well as civil

matters. Consequently, from the earliest days of a regularly organized church in the islands the regular clergy were composed of Spaniards, the native priests, in most cases, holding only subordinate positions, and being, as was to be expected, mortally jealous of their ecclesiastical superiors.

The native clergy, naturally the most enlightened class in the islands, headed the movement which resulted in the constitution of 1812, and took such an active part in the elections held in accordance with that instrument that the higher church officials leagued against them, and throughout the larger part of the nineteenth century not a Filipino held an important church charge.

Appeals were made to the church in Europe, but these were ignored. Revolutions at home likewise proved ineffectual. In 1898, however, when the Treaty of Paris awarded the archipelago to the United States, the native clergy at once saw the opportunity of securing religious freedom as well as political separation. This crisis brought to the front the then Coadjutor Bishop Gregorio Aglipay y Labayan, whose history is a veritable romance.

Aglipay was born in the Province of Ilocos Norte, Island of Luzon, on May 7, 1860. The son of a poor agriculturist, a somewhat strange accident caused him to leave the plow and take up the text-book, at the age of seventeen. He was engaged in tobacco-culture, and the Spanish Government was encouraging agriculture by forcing every planter to set out 5000 plants yearly. The year in question was a very dry one, and the young farmer decided that he would not waste energy and plants when the prospects were so unfavorable. The magistrate threw him into prison, and when he was released he shook the dust of the tobacco-field off his feet forever. He entered a Dominican school in Manila, working as a servant in exchange for his board and clothing, but progressed so rapidly that he was soon given a post as student teacher, which enabled him to secure a very thorough education. In 1889 he was ordained a priest in Manila, and for eight years he served quietly in one parish



BISHOP GREGORIO AGLIPAY, OF THE PHILIPPINE CHURCH.

after another till the governor of his province called him unexpectedly on a secular mission.

Aglipay was sent to Makabulos, who had formed a revolutionary junta in Tárlac, with a commission to offer him the captaincy of a body of volunteers if he would turn his energies against the Americans. The envoy succeeded in his mission, but his dealings with a revolutionist led to a charge of disloyalty; and although the charge was not pressed, the young priest secluded himself in Manila. Later, Aglipay was one of the ambassadors sent by the Spanish governor-general to the rebels to offer them certain concessions; but the train conveying him was captured and he himself was made prisoner. He was afterward allowed to return to Manila. When Aguinaldo, after his retirement, returned to the islands and resumed his activities, Aglipay, an old friend and admirer of his, received from him the title of "vicar-general of the archipelago." Archbishop Nozaleda promptly excommunicated him; and, his ecclesiastical functions being for the time ended, he became from 1900 to 1903 a thoroughly secular guerilla leader. At the time of Aguinaldo's capture Aglipay surrendered also, and accompanied and aided Governor Taft in his "circuit of conciliation." In 1901 Don Isabelo de los Reyes, on his return from imprisonment in Spain, announced that, after studying conditions both in Spain and in the islands, he was convinced that the Philippine church "could no longer thrive as a part of the European body." A new organization was established; Aglipay was made chief bishop, and has been the head of the church ever since.

Reyes is described by the *Open Court* writer as "the most interesting character among the leaders of the new movement." He holds the only honorary bishopric in the new organization.

A resident of Manila from his early youth, and a newspaper man by profession, he became a student of the island folklore. Ethnologist, linguist, and historian, he is a member of learned societies in Paris, Vienna, and elsewhere, and a very vigorous refutation of the assertion that nothing can be made of the Filipino. Founder of the *Ilocano*, the first bilingual paper in the province, he preached the cause of his countrymen so boldly that the Spanish governor deemed it necessary to shut him up in the Manila prison. Later he was confined for more than a year in Castle Montjuich at Barcelona. On his release he established in Madrid the journal *Filipinas ante Europa*. In 1901, after traveling through Europe, he returned to his native islands, and was promptly thrown into prison by the American Government. On his release he became the

chief agent in the establishment of the new church. He and his Spanish wife now reside in Barcelona, where he turns out fifteen to twenty magazine articles a month.

The young Philippine church has evolved an extremely original combination,—namely, "the ritual and church government of the Roman Catholic Church in which it took its origin, and the theology of Matthew Arnold." It preaches "the common holding of property, love that recognizes no boundaries, and freedom of science," and admits no dogmas. Both priests and deaconesses may marry, "although, if it be possible, it is preferable that they remain free from the cares of a family in order that they may give themselves entirely to the service of the Lord." Divorce is not permitted under any circumstances. Of all the doctrines and practices of the new church, however, the most distinctive is that proclaimed by its head: "And above all, members are absolutely forbidden to attack other churches for any reason whatever." The church government is in the hands of thirty bishops and nearly 400 priests, several of which latter are foreigners, and four or five are Spaniards. The official language of the new church is Spanish.

#### THE FIRST ELECTIVE ASSEMBLY.

On June 19 last the new Philippine Legislature, the first elective assembly to be instituted among a Malay people, adjourned, after having held inaugural, regular, and special sessions; and an interesting account of the legislation actually accomplished is given in the *North American Review* by Charles Sumner Lobingier, Judge of the Court of First Instance, Manila, who in 1907 was chairman of the commission appointed to codify the laws of the Philippine Islands.

It cannot fail to be gratifying to the American people to learn that the very first official act of the Assembly, after its organization, was the passage of a resolution to the effect that:

The people of the Philippine Islands fully recognize in the action taken by the Government of the United States in creating the said Assembly a proof of its confidence in said people, as well as a continuation of the democratic traditions of the United States.

#### The resolution also conveyed

to the President of the United States, and through him to the Congress and the people of the United States, their profound sentiments of gratitude and high appreciation of the signal concession made to the people of the islands of par-

ticipating directly in the making of the laws which shall govern them:

Political students who have followed the course of events in the Philippines will remember that the Philippine Commission reported in 1900 that it was assured, both by friendly Filipinos and by insurgent representatives, that the islanders were willing to bear almost any burden of taxation which should provide a good system of public-school education. How fully this assurance has been justified is seen in the fact that of the seventy-three laws approved by the Assembly no less than nine,—one-eighth of the whole,—related to popular education.

The very first act was one appropriating \$500,000 for the construction of schoolhouses in the *barrios*, or rural districts. This was followed by acts appropriating \$37,500 for the salaries of teachers in such schools, \$25,000 for training, at the Insular Schools of Manila, teachers to be selected from different municipalities throughout the archipelago, and the general appropriation bill which allowed \$1,650,000 for the Bureau of Education . . . and \$72,500 for the Government Medical School.

Besides the foregoing, provision was made for the conveyance to provinces and municipalities of public lands and the buildings thereon for public-school purposes, for "civico-educational lectures" in the *barrios*, and for the establishment of a Philippine public library, which will have charge of the collection and preservation of historical documents.

To crown this branch of its work, the Assembly passed, practically without amendment, a bill providing for the foundation of a "University of the Philippines." This measure, modeled on the charters of our State universities, may well be regarded as the most important work of the first Philippine Legislature. It ought to mark a new era in American educational effort in the Far East, and ultimately make Manila a center

of university influence for the spread of higher learning and Anglo-Saxon culture throughout Asia.

Outside the field of education, the acts passed by the Assembly included one for systems of irrigation, for which \$375,000 was appropriated, and a new Employers' Liability law. The latter is framed along the lines of similar laws in the United States, but is somewhat more moderate, the limit of recovery, even in case of death, being fixed at \$1250. The "fellow-servant's" rule, it should be mentioned, has never applied in the Philippines.

The Philippine Legislature consists of an Upper House (the United States Philippine Commission), which shares its powers with an elective Assembly of eighty members. There have been those who anticipated that the first Filipino Assembly would be "a radical, if not a revolutionary, body, devoting its time and efforts to plots and protests against the constituted authorities." Results have shown them to have been false prophets, for not only has there been an amicable co-operation with those authorities, but there has also been shown "a genuine appreciation of American achievements in the Philippines and a desire to continue the work so well begun." Few measures were introduced into the Assembly whose effect would have been to overturn any important feature of the settled American policy. Judge Lobingier considers that

there could scarcely be a higher tribute to the work and wisdom of those patriotic men who, in the opening years of the present century, first planted American institutions in the Orient, or a clearer demonstration that, in their efforts toward the uplift of the Philippines, the American people have been writing one of the most creditable chapters in their history.

## POLITICAL PARTIES IN CHINA.

"THE awakening of China" has become quite a stock phrase of late; yet it is doubtful if five out of six who use it realize what it implies. Political parties in the Flowery Kingdom, forsooth!—that *imperium in imperio*, where the only political party was known to be an all-powerful dowager empress, whose word was law, and who tolerated no obstacle in the way of her autocratic schemes and decrees. If any evidence were needed of the marvelously rapid march of events in the Middle Kingdom, it

is furnished by the appearance in an English magazine (the *Westminster Review*) of an article under the above caption, by "A Chinese Student." After giving an interesting historical résumé, this writer goes on to say that under the great Manchu emperor, K'ien Lung, the formation of any party of a political character was thenceforth forbidden under the penalty of high treason; and that at the beginning of the nineteenth century no trace of party politics was to be found in the empire.

After the Tai-ping rebellion the autocratic power was weakened somewhat "by the influence of those so-called imperial generals, of whom Li Hung Chang was one." It was after the Chino-Japanese war "that a stir was made in the thinking class, and the ex-leader of the Constitutional Monarchists, Kang Yu Wei, made his first attempt to publicly organize a party." Kang Yu Wei came into power in 1898, and took part in the short-lived *coup d'état* of that year, as a consequence of which he was sent into exile. When interviewed by Lord Charles Beresford at Hong-Kong he asserted that the objects of the Reform party were to keep China an empire, and to support the dynasty. He added that at that moment the party was "completely crushed, but not killed."

After the Boxer trouble the party quickly revived in the official world, but, being very timid, they disclaimed Kang Yu Wei as leader, and chose Yuan Shih Kai in his stead.

Of the three existing political parties, that of the Constitutional Monarchists is perhaps the most powerful, as it consists chiefly of the aristocrats who naturally have the maximum of means to carry their views into execution. They are gradually gaining ground in the highest quarters, in spite of the reactionary element in the government.

The next important party is the Revolutionary, or Republican; whose acknowledged leader is Dr Sun Yat Sen.

Ten years ago his followers were mostly wild adventurers from different quarters, and it is curious to note that not a few Japanese were among their number. . . . In those days Dr. Sun had but a handful of men and not much money. . . . The two years, 1898-1900, saw the Chinese Government in a whirlpool, when the Revolutionary party quickly gathered strength. In 1900 Tang Chai Chang, one of Kang Yu Wei's early followers, attempted a rising at Hankow, the plot was discovered, and the leaders were executed. . . . During the last seven years the party has steadily gained strength—men of great ability and position having joined it willingly.

Dr. Sun has thus defined the program of the Revolutionary party:

The foremost object of our party is to insure entire political freedom by overthrowing the present government, and establishing a republic in its stead. The pernicious tradition of the official world and the evil influence of the court can only be swept away by a revolution. . . . Once the government is overthrown, reorganization would be a comparatively easy task. All the foolish restrictions of trade would be removed, and the country would soon recover from its economic distress.

The third political party consists of the

Constitutional Democrats. These are of opinion "that the efficiency of a government depends not so much on its form as on its foundation and background,—the society, which 'is a growth, and not a manufacture.' It is absurd to think that we can create or transform our society by merely changing the form of our government. . . . Side by side with the work of social transformation we will struggle for individual freedom and judicial independence." In this respect the three parties are at one.

They also agree on two other vitally important questions, viz.,—the anti-Manchu campaign,—directed against the existing political inequality and not as a mission of race hatred,—and the policy of "China for the Chinese."

The expression, "China for the Chinese," has often been misrepresented as the sign of the old "closed door" policy. . . . I do not know what definition has been given for the expression, "Australia for the Australians," or "Canada for the Canadians," but "China for the Chinese" means that the Chinese people will maintain their national rights and interest against any one from within or without who attempts to endanger them. We are not anti-foreign in any way; on the contrary, we want to promote every possible good-feeling among our friends, on whose action much of our future depends.

Political freedom is the common object of all three parties; they differ only as to the method of obtaining it.

The Constitutional Monarchists wish to have a constitution under the present régime, and they aim at the centralization of the government; the Revolutionary party, on the other hand, maintains that a revolution is absolutely necessary in order to establish a government on truly modern lines; whilst the Constitutional Democrats differ from them both in opposing the policy of centralization, and disapproving the violent method of a revolution.

We have only space to quote the concluding paragraph of the article:

Of an ultimate victory we have not the slightest doubt. . . . Neither the brutal force acquired by Europe through modern science, nor the arbitrary power given to the tyrants by Oriental tradition, can stop our progress. If the West wishes sincerely to take an honorable part in our stupendous task, there are only two things we ask: Firstly, whatever be the struggle between the people and the government, or between the people themselves, we ask Europe to maintain a strictly neutral attitude. We do not want help, much less interference. . . . Secondly, we ask Europe to afford us facilities for education,—education in the widest sense of the word. Not only do we ask you to open the doors of your colleges and universities to our students, but also to give us opportunities for social inter-



course, so that any national prejudice in our young generation may be entirely removed through their personal experience. Treat us as one of yourselves, and you will find in us no disappointment. Remember that Orientals are hu-

man beings. The difference between the East and the West is essentially of *degree* rather than *kind*; and we do not see why we should not achieve what every European nation has done before us. We will *fight* and *hope*.

## GOVERNMENT OWNERSHIP OF THE TELEPHONE IN WESTERN CANADA.

THE spirit of public ownership is rampant in the great territory that lies between the Great Lakes and the Rocky Mountains. There is a sense of proprietorship in the Westerner which forms a part of his very nature. No sooner does he acquire a small personal holding on the prairie than he proceeds to take a shareholder's interest in every legitimate Western enterprise. Then, again, politicians have educated the people to the advantages of public ownership of utilities; and with this problem, writes Mr. George Fisher Chapman, in the *Canadian Magazine*, the brightest minds in Canada are now wrestling. In Manitoba, the acquisition by the government of the control of certain railroads has resulted in a saving of more than \$2,000,000 annually to the people, and this amount is increasing.

Manitoba has made a second venture in the field of government ownership,—the acquirement of the Bell telephone system. In 1906 the government decided to undertake the construction of telephone lines throughout the province; and a plebiscite was taken in the municipalities on the question, "Shall this municipality own and operate its own telephones?" The total votes cast were 13,688 for and 11,569 against. The government, interpreting the voice of the people as favorable to the project, opened negotiations with the Bell company for the purchase of its system. The Bell people rejected the offer made to them, and the government then decided to go ahead and compete with that company. In the spring of 1907 active operations were begun, conduits were laid all through Winnipeg, and a large exchange building was commenced. By last fall \$200,000 had been expended on the work, and the Bell company then awoke to the fact that "they were face to face with a real live rival, and one that could not be beaten." They had fought, and fought successfully, independent companies and corporations; but here they found themselves with all the wealth of a state against them. Deeming discretion the better part of valor, the com-

pany approached the Manitoba government with the view of making the best terms possible; and ultimately Mr. C. F. Sise, president of the Bell Telephone Company of Canada, sold to the government all his plant and rights for the sum of \$3,000,000. In payment, Manitoba government bonds, payable in forty years, and bearing interest at 4 per cent., were accepted.

It was evident that the only safe method for the operation of the new system was by the appointment of an impartial commission.

The government avoided the political field, and chose the three chief officials of the Bell Company at Manitoba as commissioners,—viz., F. C. Paterson, chairman; W. H. Hayes, engineer; and H. J. Horan, as third member of the commission. By agreement with Mr. Sise, all the employees of the Bell system were to be retained in office for at least one year, so that there was no change in the service anywhere. The commission was given full charge of the operation of the plant, the management of employees and agents, and also of the big question of rates. The government retained supervisory powers, and also the work of constructing rural and long distance lines.

Up to the present the benefits resulting from the purchase of the Bell system are not apparent. There were 14,195 telephones in the province, and these were purchased from the company at \$232 each,—a very high price.

The only change in rates has been an upward one, as nurses' and doctors' telephones have been raised from \$40 a year to the regular business rate of \$50. The government has an immense problem before them in the operation of the telephone system; and if the rates cannot be lowered without a loss, then the experiment will be pronounced a failure,—for the service will be the same.

In Alberta, the government purchased the Bell system for \$675,000, and 2700 telephones were acquired at a cost of \$260 per instrument.

In Saskatchewan, the government is building a system of its own throughout the province; but no doubt the near future will see the Bell plant transferred to the government here also.

## LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

### HOW TO GO AFTER INCREASE IN VALUE.

A HARDWARE dealer wrote a letter to the publishers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. It is a fair composite of a good many received this fall, showing the keen interest in promising bonds, and also the main fallacy, concerning them, entertained by business men all over the country.

"I save \$8000 to \$9000 a year that I don't want to put back in the business. I want you to give me a regular plan to invest this money in bonds that will probably increase in value. Of course, they must pay 5 per cent. or 6 per cent., and must be salable in a hurry in case I should need the money. But remember that *I don't want to speculate.*"

This writer was embarking on a perfectly straight course, but was sailing under false colors, if he really expected to come through "without speculating."

#### BONDS THAT MAY RISE.

Many bonds that have not yet got their growth may be picked out as promising. They show a good chance of rising ten or fifteen points within the next year or two. Most of the "high grade" issues have had such a rise during the year past. History shows that the "second-grade" bonds are next to follow suit after a panic.

This means that the merchant's \$8500 could buy ten bonds that might be worth \$9500 to \$10,000 before very long. The sort of thing to buy for this purpose is sketched in last month's *Harper's* and *Pearson's*.

But before reviewing these articles, one does well to dwell on the fallacy in the letter above. It is shared by many business men. It is the belief that the bond trade is somehow different from any other trade.

#### BONDS AS A "SIDE LINE."

By taking on ten 4 per cent. bonds at \$8500, the hardware merchant simply adds a "side line" to his nails and bolts and files. It is a superior line to the rest, in that it pays him \$400 a year for its keep. And money can be borrowed on it, even at banks where the merchant has no account. In fact, it

makes him mighty independent, and thus helps his credit at the bank from which he is accustomed to borrow. Thus it acts as a sort of insurance to all the rest of his stock.

Nevertheless, these bonds bought for an "increase of value" become objects of trade. And their owner must assume the ordinary risks of trade. This is speculation.

Only haste and carelessness can blink the fact. When it is faced, when the risks are intelligently met, divided among various enterprises in different parts of the country, and supervised by an experienced banker, then the speculation becomes a sensible one, and deserves the name of a "business man's investment."

Indeed, if there is one feature of speculation as distinguished from investment, it is this same "promise of increase of value." The purest form of investment, the note, whether secured by mortgage or not, offers the purchaser *his money back*, no more, no less, with stated interest. With bonds and stocks, widely sold and subject to fluctuations, enters the element of trade.

Bankers who know their business best are most apt to make this point clear in advance. So the buyer of "business men's bonds" should find financial advisers who do not conceal risks, but anticipate them and insure against them. Such are the firms that point to ledgers full of the accounts of satisfied customers.

#### RULES FOR SELECTION.

The science of picking out bonds for growth in value is summed up by Richard Fitzgerald in *Pearson's*. "Seek direct obligations of railroads of junior rank," he writes. "Many such railroad lines occupy important strategic geographical positions, the securities of which promise to increase in value year after year with the increase of population and business of the company, through connections with other railroads."

The hazard here is in your forecast, but given ample values underlying your selection, you have little to fear in the event of damage to crops or temporary mismanagement of the property, and can with confidence abide the outcome.

In the past few years the greatest increase in population has been in the Southeast, the extreme Northwest and in the Southwest, due in the latter instance to irrigation and the occupation by settlers of Indian lands. The necessities of these new inhabitants and the cultivation of this virgin soil promises the railroads increased income.

Belief in American prosperity will take the investor past some of the doubtful places. Once upon a time, even the Pennsylvania and New York Central bonds seemed speculative to English financiers. Now our national prosperity has put most of these in the "trustee" class. "So in time," writes Mr. Fitzgerald, "will railroads, now of the second class, through absorption by greater systems, cultivation of an increased acreage or the discovery of some natural output in their territory, advance to the present rank of our leading corporations."

Pick out first-mortgage issues of struggling grange roads, and study them. Many railroads have divisional first-mortgage bonds of as great value as was originally their main line securities. Select railroad equipment bonds secured by first mortgage, and first-mortgage railroad terminal issues. The earning capacity of such property is apparent, its importance as a component part of the whole of which it serves so vital a necessity is equally apparent.

Many unpopular securities are safe and sound, and full of promise of great appreciation. The patient study that leads to an investment of your money in such bonds will fully reward you.

#### BONDS THAT HAVE REACHED THE TOP.

To understand what a "promising" bond implies, it helps to look into one that has already fulfilled its promise. Such are the West Shore 4s of 2361. In *Harper's*, Howard Schench Mott has this to say about them:

There is only the one issue of bonds on the West Shore, and it is at the rate of about \$104,000 per mile, but the road is double-tracked, has exceedingly valuable terminals, heavy through and local traffic, and, last, but not least, the New York Central & Hudson River Railroad Company owns all of its \$10,000,000 of capital stock, and leases the road for 475 years from January 1, 1886, at a rental of the interest on its bonds.

Furthermore, the New York Central guarantees the bonds as to both principal and interest by endorsement on each bond. The bonds have a good but very inactive Stock Exchange market. They probably have already reached a maximum of investment value, and offer no inducement to the man looking for a good return on his money and chance of appreciation in value.

#### BONDS WITH LARGE POSSIBILITIES.

Evidently our friend in the hardware business would not be interested in such limited bonds. He wants to begin farther down and

work up. Here is some risk; but, as Mr. Mott writes, "if there were not some uncertainty about the future, there never would be a chance of appreciation in value."

Several bonds issued by the "Katy" are popular with business men. Mr. Mott tells why:

The Missouri, Kansas & Texas Railway traverses a rich agricultural country from St. Louis, Missouri, south to Galveston, Texas. Its earnings depend much upon the weather during the crop season; for good crops mean not only a large traffic in grain and cotton, but prosperity for the farmers in the territory it traverses, and *vice versa*. The section of the country through which it runs is peculiarly subject to floods and droughts during the summer months, by which the crops are at times endangered; nevertheless, the agricultural prosperity of the section grows each year, and a considerable portion of the country remains undeveloped. The earnings of the company evidently have large possibilities of expansion.

The first mortgage bonds are secured by a first mortgage at the rate of about \$27,000 per mile and by securities representing the control of several subsidiary companies in the State of Texas. At the present time these bonds sell slightly under par, and are unquestionably a safe investment, but the yield is only slightly over 4 per cent.

Consequently the business man will direct his attention to the second-mortgage bonds covering substantially the same property as the first-mortgage bonds, but selling materially below par, and therefore yielding a higher rate of income on the investment. Or, if he looks for still larger chance of appreciation in value, he will direct his attention to a study of bonds which have liens junior to both the first and second mortgage bonds, namely the refunding 4-per-cent. bonds due in 2004, or the general mortgage 4½-per-cent. bonds due in 1936, both of which sell at prices lower than the second-mortgage bonds and yield higher returns.

The facts stated with regard to the Missouri, Kansas & Texas territory, taken in connection with an increasing stability of earnings as traffic becomes diversified, would constitute very important elements of value for all of the securities of any railroad company. Practically all of the bonds of the Missouri, Kansas & Texas Company enjoy a more active market than do those of the West Shore. Even the divisional bonds of the Missouri, Kansas & Texas, which may be inactive on the Stock Exchange, always find a good market among dealers in bonds. For any one having in mind the possible necessity of reconverting his investment into cash, the Missouri, Kansas & Texas issues better meet his needs.

The point first insisted upon at the beginning of this review must be returned to. Bonds that have not got their growth yet should not be bought by those dependent on their income, and not even a business man unless he realizes what he is about, and is willing to take the trouble to safeguard himself in advance.

## NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

## BIOGRAPHY AND REMINISCENCE.

The Life of Thomas Bailey Aldrich. By Ferris Greenslet. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 303 pp., ill. \$3.

There is, of course, much interest of a purely literary sort in Mr. Greenslet's biography of Thomas Bailey Aldrich, but it is surpassed by the human interest. All the men and boys who have ever read Mr. Aldrich's famous "Story of a Bad Boy" will be greatly entertained by the opening chapter of Mr. Greenslet's life of the poet, in which the scenes of "Tom Bailey's" youthful activities are cleverly described. The young poet's subsequent life in New York City, related under the expressive caption, "The Hall Bedroom," reveals the beginnings of several important literary friendships. The later episodes in Mr. Aldrich's career are better known to the public of to-day. The years devoted to the editorship of the *Atlantic Monthly* were in some respects the most important of his life, but during the later years of greater leisure he retained and developed his function as a critic.

Abraham Lincoln, The Boy and the Man. By James Morgan. Macmillan. 435 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Mr. Morgan, whose life of "Theodore Roosevelt, The Boy and the Man," met with an unusual success as a popular biography, has prepared a similar sketch of the life of Abraham Lincoln, the centenary of whose birth will be widely observed next winter. Nobody at this late day looks for anything novel in any popular life of Lincoln. The field has been worked so thoroughly by a long line of biographers that there is hardly a possibility of any important discovery being made in the record of Lincoln's life. Mr. Morgan makes no pretensions to original work. As he says, his book is not a critical study, but a simple story,—a series of dramatic pictures of the struggles and achievements of a common man in whom a race of common men is exalted. In the preparation of his book Mr. Morgan has made use of the various accessible authorities, presenting those incidents in his hero's life which are most significant and essential.

Recollections of a Varied Career. By William F. Draper. Little, Brown. 411 pp., ill. \$3.

General Draper was a soldier in the Civil War, member of Congress, and a war-time diplomat with a varied and inspiring career. His "Recollections" not only lay before the reader the public aspects of his career, but give an insight into his business life, most of which was passed as the head of one of the largest industrial establishments in the State of Massachusetts.

John C. Calhoun. By Gaillard Hunt. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. 335 pp., por. \$1.25.

It has been said by more than one judicious historian that very few American statesmen have had so strong an influence upon their time as John C. Calhoun. Although his cause failed, he was identified with that cause more than any other man in our history, "and it was a central



PRESENT APPEARANCE OF THE OLD NEW YORK HOUSE WHERE THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH DID HIS EARLIER WRITING.

(From "The Life of Thomas Bailey Aldrich.")

idea in which nearly half the American people believed until it was destroyed by the Civil War." Mr. Hunt's sketch of the life and influence of the Southern statesman is a sympathetic and useful one, and he has supplemented his text with chronological and bibliographical notes. The book is one of the series of American Crisis Biographies.

Famous Cavalry Leaders. By Charles H. L. Johnston. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 393 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Fifteen of the heroes of saber, spur, and saddle, from the time of Attila to our own Indian wars on the Western plains, are represented in this volume. The four Americans designated for inclusion in the group are Francis Marion, the Revolutionary general; Jeb Stuart, the Confederate cavalier; Phil Sheridan, the hero of



Winchester, and George Armstrong Custer, the Indian fighter.

#### SOME WORKS OF FICTION.

The Testing of Diana Mallory. By Mrs.

Humphry Ward. Harper. 549 pp., ill. \$1.50.

It would be a very unusual fiction season indeed that did not see the appearance of at least one novel by Mrs. Humphry Ward. Fiction readers have learned to await with real interest the appearance of Mrs. Ward's stories and to speculate as to what new combination she will make of her regular series of themes and scenes. In this latest tale there is the familiar atmosphere of higher British politics, the well-known descriptions of Italian scenery, and the absorbingly interesting plot hinging upon the mystery attaching to the origin or temperament of the gifted and wealthy young woman. Diana Mallory is, we think, more human and more lovable than any other of Mrs. Ward's heroines. It is not a great novel, but Diana is almost a great figure. Young, sincere, and sweet-hearted, she suddenly learns that her young mother, who had died almost before the daughter knew her, had killed a man whom the world believed her lover. Just before this blow falls Diana is betrothed to the man she loves. Oliver Marsham is a typical product of his rather caddish British convention. He fails her at first. Indeed, we refuse to enthuse over him at all, and when Diana saves the wreck of him (he became blind from an accident) and marries him we doubt if

there exists the reader who sympathizes with him even in his misfortune or who does not question the use of saving him. The whole story, which moves brilliantly with Mrs. Ward's usual play of feeling and sentiment, is the story of the great love of a woman. There is no one in it worth while except Diana, and she, it may conservatively be said, is a more attractive person than Lady Rose's daughter, Kitty Ashe, or indeed any of Mrs. Ward's other women.

Every Man for Himself. By Norman Duncan.

Harper. 305 pp., ill. \$1.50.

The same rare sympathy, knowledge of the human heart, and appeal to healthy sentiment that won us in "Dr. Luke of the Labrador" characterize these tales. Most of them have their scenes in that bleak, northern land, although some are also aglow with the warm imagery and heart throbs of Armenia and Syria. Salim, the pack-peddler, is one of the most attractive of the characters. The best three stories, we think, are "The Minstrel," "The Squall," and "They Who Lose at Love."

The Palace of Danger. By Mabel Wagnalls.

Funk & Wagnalls. 311 pp., ill. \$1.50.

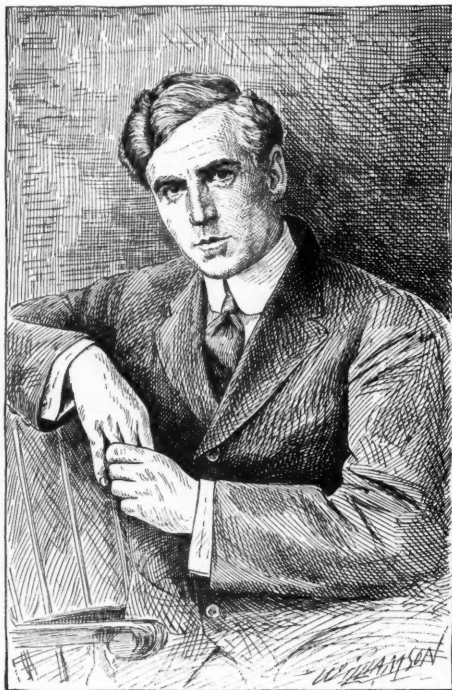
This is a keenly dramatic story of the days and influence of the famous, or notorious, Mme. de Pompadour. The immense power of this woman for good or evil in France, the infatuation for her of the hero, a young courtier, and the sweet and guileless simplicity of a young convent maiden,—these form the thread upon which the story hinges. It is a thoroughly human tale and so well constructed that the interest holds one to the end. Perhaps there are too many dramatic surprises, but they are all of the kind that might really have happened. The illustrations are by the historical painter, John Ward Dunsmore. Miss Wagnalls, it will be remembered, is the author of "Miserere," "Stars of the Opera," and other works.

The Binding of the Strong. By Caroline Atwater Mason. Fleming H. Revell & Co. 352 pp., ill. \$1.50.

This pleasantly told tale is the love story of the poet Milton. Mrs. Mason,—author, by the way, of several other novels, including "A Lily of France" and "The Little Green God,"—has adhered most closely to historical facts, but has given her chief attention to telling the story of the hopeless passion of the great, saintly man for Delmé Davies. The appearance of this book is timely, in view of the renewed interest in Milton's personality and works stimulated by the coming tercentenary of his birth next month at Cambridge University.

Lewis Rand. By Mary Johnston. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 510 pp., ill. \$1.50.

After desisting for four years from novel-writing Miss Johnston reappears with a characteristic story of Virginia life in the period of Jefferson's Administration. The hero of the tale is a lawyer who was involved in Aaron Burr's operations in the Southwest, and Burr himself figures in several of the chapters. So does President Jefferson. Some of the customs of the time, notably the method of *viva voce* voting, are well described.



NORMAN DUNCAN.

(Author of "Every Man for Himself.")



CAROLINE ATWATER MASON.  
(Author of "The Binding of the Strong.")

#### PROBLEMS OF THE DAY.

The Confessions of a Railroad Signalman. By J. O. Fagan. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 181 pp., ill. \$1.

When these "confessions" appeared in the form of articles contributed to the *Atlantic Monthly* they attracted much attention. Still more interest was aroused when something of the personality of the writer became known. It appears that Mr. Fagan, the author of the "confessions," is a real signalman, having been stationed at the signal tower of Cambridge, Mass., for the past twenty years. The studies that he has made of railroad management during that time have commended themselves to many railroad experts and have finally led to his appointment to a lectureship at Harvard University. To the layman Mr. Fagan's writings on the subject of railroad accidents impress themselves as singularly judicious, fair, and well considered. He does not content himself with an idealist's statement of what ought to be, but takes into account existing conditions in the operative departments of our great railroads, and attempts to show how with all the recognized difficulties of administration there may yet be worked out a scheme that will assure a far smaller proportion of fatalities in the running of our trains. His conclusions are so practical and so obviously based on experience and observation from the inside that they cannot be hastily dismissed by railroad officials, nor do we believe that a majority of railroad officials after reading Mr. Fagan's book would accord them such treatment. Those "higher up" who have wondered how accidents could occur on the roads under their control may get new light on the problem from these "confessions."

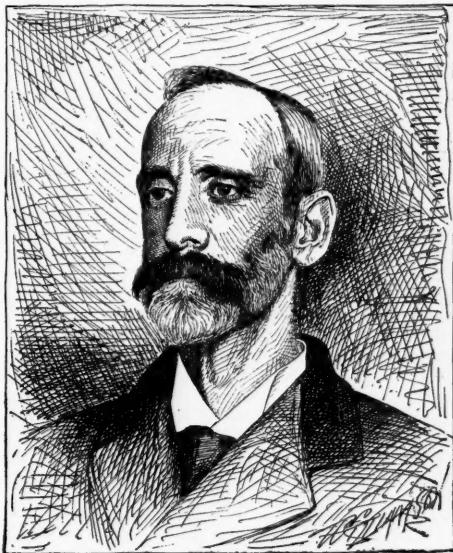
The Call of the City. By Charles Mulford Robinson. Paul Elder & Co. 103 pp., ill. \$1.25.

The Lure of the City. By Dr. David James Burrell. Funk & Wagnalls. 284 pp. \$1.

Mr. Robinson's favorite subject in the other books and magazine articles which he has put to his credit during the past few years is urban life, particularly in its phases of civic improvement and municipal art. Mr. Robinson loves the city and writes sentimentally about its charm, but we venture to say that few will agree with his contention that the city is really more beautiful and charming than the country. However, since so much has been said of the evils and horrors of city life, perhaps it was well to have written this little rhapsody. Dr. Burrell's book is of a different order. It is really a collection of sermons addressed to young men coming to the city for the first time and admonishing them how they may escape the "lure," which to Dr. Burrell is almost always toward evil men and things. He writes here with his well-known vigor.

Problems of City Government. By L. S. Rowe. Appleton. 358 pp. \$1.50.

Professor Rowe undertakes in this volume to make available for American use the municipal experiences of foreign countries. His book, however, is much more than a mere summary of foreign experience. The author analyzes the principles involved in American municipal development and shows the presence of causes which go far to explain important changes in our social structure. On the question of municipal ownership of public utilities, while recognizing the practical impossibility of any immediate adoption of this principle on a large scale, Dr.



J. O. FAGAN.  
(Author of "Confessions of a Railroad Signalman.")

Rowe contends that experiments in municipal ownership should be encouraged. He believes, further, that the sentiment in favor of municipal ownership and even of municipal operation will acquire increasing force with each year, due primarily, as he puts it, to the influence of one of the factors to which little attention has been given,—namely, the opposition to monopoly. He also points out that experiments made hereafter in the United States will be conducted under more favorable conditions than any previous period. The civic life of our American cities may be placed on a higher plane by the mere effort to meet the responsibilities involved in municipal operation of the public-service industries.

**Our City Schools: Their Direction and Management.** By William E. Chancellor. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 338 pp. \$1.25.

This little book, by the Superintendent of Schools of the District of Columbia, was written with direct reference to the problems that are peculiar to cities of more than 40,000 population, and is intended to complement the author's earlier work, which dealt with conditions prevailing in communities of from 5000 to 40,000 population. Superintendent Chancellor has had wide experience in school administration, having served in cities of great diversity in size and characteristics and holding at present what he rightly terms a strategic position,—the superintendency of schools of the national capital. He makes the claim for his present book that while no one city exemplifies all that it advocates, yet most of what is proposed is a reality somewhere.

**Road Preservation and Dust Prevention.** By William P. Judson. New York: Engineering News Publishing Company. 146 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Owing to the increased use of automobiles it has become a practical and pressing question in many parts of the country whether hundreds of miles of costly macadam road shall be allowed to go to destruction, or whether some means of prompt and effective betterment can be devised. No one would not contend that the automobile should be abolished, but the threatened ruination of our highways is likely to bring about much hostile legislation, unless something can be done immediately to check the destruction. In this little book Mr. Judson gives some of the results of his own observation and experience in dealing with the problem of road dust. What he has to say about the many failures in attempting to control and prevent dust is perhaps as valuable as any part of his book, for by heeding the warnings road officials and engineers in many parts of the country might be spared the useless expenditure of thousands of dollars, to say nothing of much discomfort and injury. Mr. Judson has made a careful study of the various oils and coal-tar preparations recommended for use on roads, and gives many valuable suggestions regarding the adaptability of particular materials to local conditions. He shows how rural roads may be maintained practically dustless at a minimum expense, and his book should be in the hands of State and local road officials throughout the country.

#### CONTRIBUTIONS TO HISTORY.

**Canadian Types of the Old Régime (1608-1698).**

By Charles W. Colby. Henry Holt & Co. 366 pp., ill. \$2.75.

At this time, when the attention of the world has been so recently drawn to the celebration of three hundred years of Canadian history, Professor Colby's sympathetic and illuminating studies of old-time Canadian worthies come with especial interest. The chapters of this book were originally lectures delivered during the author's courses in history at McGill University. He has considered Champlain, the explorer; Brébeuf, the missionary; Hébert, the colonist; d'Iberville, the soldier; DuLhut, the *Coureur de Bois*; Talon, the intendant; Laval, the bishop; Frontenac, the governor; and, finally, under various names, the early Canadian woman. The introductory chapter on the historical background of New France is one of the most interesting in the volume, but the most suggestive, we think, is the chapter on Talon, whose grasp of the economic and industrial needs of the infant dominion was really most remarkable. Talon was "a business man endowed with a rare capacity for business and instinct with public spirit. . . . On the whole, he appears to have furthered the cause of the French race in America beyond any other official whom the French crown ever sent to the banks of the St. Lawrence."

**The World's Great Events.** By Albert Payson Terhune. Dodd, Mead. 308 pp., ill. \$1.20.

Fifty decisive episodes in world history are related in this volume of 300 pages. The style is graphic and terse, and as the writing in the first instance was done for newspaper publication there is no great elaboration of either matter or form. The fifty brief essays do just what they were intended to do when they appeared in the columns of the New York *Evening World*. They give the essential facts of each event in their proper historical setting, and they do this in a way calculated to interest the casual reader. The book makes excellent supplementary reading for high-school classes in history.

**The Later Years of Catherine de Medici.** By Edith Sichel. Dutton. 446 pp., ill. \$3.

**A Group of Scottish Women.** By Harry Graham. Duffield & Co. 343 pp., ill. \$3.50.

In her former works, "The Households of the Lafayettes" and "Catherine de Medici and the French Reformation," Miss Sichel showed herself to possess the spirit of the real historian. This later volume is written with even more spirit and skill, and the pictures she presents of the life and times of the Queen Mother, whose memory has been so execrated,—and perhaps misunderstood,—is vivid and enlightening. Seldom has there come to our notice such a graphic yet dispassionate account of the "Massacre of St. Bartholomew" as we find in this volume. Mr. Graham thinks that no country, in proportion to its population and the part it played in the history of the world, has had so many noted women as Scotland. In this volume he gives a series of lively and sympathetic sketches of famous Scottish women, beginning with Der-

vorguilla, who lived in the thirteenth century, and ending with Miss Clementina Graham, that lady of great political influence, who died in 1877.

**The Builders of United Italy (1808-1898).** By Rupert Sargent Holland. Holt. 349 pp., ill. \$2.

**Danton and the French Revolution.** By Charles F. Warwick. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. 467 pp., ill. \$2.50.

Of the "Builders of United Italy" even the historical student of to-day knows but little beyond the names of Cavour, Mazzini, and Garibaldi. Mr. Holland, in his excellent little volume, has rounded out the picture by giving us a sketch of all the prominent figures in that "most desperate and hopeful page in European history,"—the Italian risorgimento. He considers, presenting excellent portraits in each case, "Alfieri, the Poet"; "Mazoni, the Man of Letters"; "Gioberti, the Philosopher"; "Manin, the Father of Venice"; "Mazzini, the Prophet"; "Cavour, the Statesman"; "Garibaldi, the Crusader"; and "Victor Emmanuel, the King." Mr. Warwick's former volume, on "Mirabeau and the French Revolution," gave us a taste of his quality. The study of Danton is the second in a trilogy he purposes writing, the last to be on Robespierre.

**Ocean Life in the Old Sailing-Ship Days.** By John D. Whidden. Little, Brown & Co. 314 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Not many are left to tell the tale of the old New England sailing-ships, and for that reason such a record as that of Captain Whidden is the more to be prized. The Captain at one time or another in his long sea service visited many ports in the far East, in South America, and in the Mediterranean. His book not only relates his experiences as a voyager, but gives remarkable insight into the ships and seafaring methods of a past generation.

**The Story of the New England Whalers.** By John R. Spears. Macmillan. 418 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Mr. Spears has delved in the records of 250 years of New England whale fishing, and no important phase of the subject has escaped him. It is well that the story of this important industry should be thus preserved, for the American whale-fishery will soon be a thing of the past. It is stated that the fleet now numbers forty vessels, of which eighteen are owned in San Francisco. In 1860 no fewer than 508 vessels were in the trade.

**English Voyages of Adventure and Discovery.**

By Edwin M. Bacon. Scribners. 401 pp., ill. \$1.50.

This is an account of Richard Hakluyt and his narratives of English exploration and adventure from the earliest records to the establishment of the English colonies in North America. The book was prepared at the instance of Edwin D. Mead, a leading spirit in what is known as the "Old South Work" for instruction in American history, and its purpose is to draw the youth of to-day to an important source of American his-



CATHERINE DE MEDICI.

(Frontispiece of "The Later Years of Catherine de Medici," by Edith Sichel.)

tory. Mr. Bacon has summarized the narrative contained in Hakluyt's well-known "Principal Navigations" into a coherent story from the earliest adventures chiefly for conquest to those for discovery and expansion of trade, and finally for colonization, down to the settlement of Virginia.

**The Story of a Border City During the Civil War.** By Galusha Anderson. Little, Brown & Co. 385 pp., ill. \$1.50.

This book tells the interesting story of St. Louis during the Civil War. Many of the dramatic incidents in that story were made familiar to thousands of readers by Mr. Winston Churchill's novel, "The Crisis," which appeared several years ago. All readers of Mr. Churchill's book will, we are sure, be entertained and instructed by the intimate account which Dr. Anderson gives of his own experiences as a clergyman in St. Louis from 1858 to 1866. It will be remembered that at the outbreak of the war Missourians were divided between secession and the Union. The brunt of the struggle naturally was borne by St. Louis, the metropolis of the State.

#### ESSAYS.

**Magazine Writing and the New Literature.** By Henry Mills Alden. Harpers. 321 pp., por. \$2.

Mr. Alden, who has long been the dean of American magazine editors, writes in this volume of the relation of periodical to general literature and of the development of literature itself. His chapters on "Early Periodical Literature," "English Periodical Literature in the Nineteenth Century," "American Periodicals," "The American Audience," and "The Scope of a First-Class American Magazine," are of spe-





MRS. LEONIDAS HUBBARD, JR.

(Author of "A Woman's Way Through Unknown Labrador.")

cial interest because of the writer's long-continued association with the magazine as a distinctively American institution and because of his close acquaintance with American writers during the past half-century.

**The Privileged Classes.** By Barrett Wendell. Scribner. 274 pp. \$1.25.

In the four essays that make up this volume Professor Wendell discusses the deeper problems of higher education in their relation to present-day American life. The papers were originally presented as addresses on literary and educational occasions.

**Orthodoxy.** By Gilbert K. Chesterton. New York: John Lane Company. 299 pp. \$1.50.

The virile, audacious comparisons and philippics of Mr. Chesterton have for several years been eagerly read by liberal thinkers. The present volume is meant to be a companion volume to the former one, entitled "Heretics," which created a great deal of discussion in Great Britain. "Orthodoxy" is an attempt, Mr. Chesterton declares, to explain "not whether the Christian faith can be believed in, but how the writer personally has come to believe it."

**Realities and Ideals.** By Frederic Harrison. Macmillan. 462 pp. \$1.75.

Everything that Mr. Harrison writes is so "meaty" and thought-provoking that it seems scarcely necessary to call attention to these qualities in the collection of essays that make up the present volume. The social, political, literary, and artistic realities and ideals that he treats of in his essays include the relations of England and France, the social and political future of woman, the status of civil and religious mar-

riage in England, studies in the relations of the established church to the British Government, the revival of the drama, literature in England, and a dozen or more studies of eminent Englishmen of the nineteenth century. The general theory of life upon which these essays are grounded, Mr. Harrison modestly asserts in his prefatory note, "assumes that every form of culture and everything that tends to brighten our existence should contribute in its place to the sum of human happiness,—'nothing human is foreign to man.'"

#### DESCRIPTION AND TRAVEL.

**The Niagara River.** By Archer B. Hulbert. Putnam. 319 pp., ill. \$3.50.

Half of Professor Hulbert's volume is devoted to the present-day interests of Niagara and half to the historical associations of the river and its various settlements. The reader will find here a very good popular account of the geographical revelations of the Niagara Gorge, together with a full and fair discussion of the impending dangers to the scenic value of the Falls resulting from the use of the water for industrial purposes. A very good account is given of the part which the Niagara region had in the war of 1812. Not the least interesting feature of the work is the chronicle of achievements accredited to a long list of adventurers and adventuresses who have braved the fury of Niagara's waters in casks or boats or who have crossed from shore to shore on ropes or wires.

**The Jungle Folk of Africa.** By Robert H. Milligan. Fleming H. Revell Company. 380 pp., ill. \$1.50.

It has occurred to Mr. Milligan that the native African is worth knowing on his own account, and with a view to presenting this human side of the Dark Continent he gives in this volume some of his own experiences with the people of the jungle, confining his attention to that part of the west coast which he knows intimately from seven years' residence. The book is entertaining and far more illuminating than many of the travelers' accounts that have appeared in recent years.

**A Woman's Way Through Unknown Labrador.** By Mrs. Leonidas Hubbard, Jr. McClure Publishing Company. 305 pp., ill. \$1.50.

This book records Mrs. Hubbard's unique experiences as an explorer and relates in detail how her husband's unfinished work was completed, besides including the greater part of the diary kept by Mr. Hubbard himself and an account of the last days of that intrepid explorer. It is an interesting fact that this journey made by a woman is the only one over the region in question that has been recognized by the geographical authorities of America and Europe. The book is illustrated from photographs.

**Servia and the Servians.** By M. Chedo Mijatovich. Boston: L. C. Page. 284 pp., ill. \$3.

Dr. Mijatovich was formerly Servian minister at the court of St. James. He is author of a number of works on the Balkans, including "A Royal Tragedy," describing the assassina-

tion of King Alexander and Queen Draga, a book already noticed in these pages. Just now, when the attention of the entire world is being turned to the Slav nations of the Balkan region, these works of Dr. Mijatovich, written in the opening weeks of the present year, seem particularly significant: "The Balkan peninsula is predestined to press in this new century more and more forward in the forefront of at least European history, if not of the world's history." The Servians, says this author, are one of the most gifted and interesting nations in southeastern Europe. I pay them, he continues, a "great and well-deserved compliment, at the same time hinting at the weak points of their psychological constitution, when I say that they are the Irish of the Balkans." The volume consists of chapters on the history, religion, and national characteristics of the people, including special chapters on the peasant, the music, the literature, and the economic possibilities of Servia. An appendix contains a specimen of the Servian national poems and of Servian folklore, and gives some interesting statistical information of the most recent data upon the country of King Peter. There are sixteen full-page illustrations, chiefly from photographs taken by the author, landscape views and peasant type.

Hungary and the Hungarians. By W. B. Foster Bovill. McClure Publishing Company. 352 pp., ill. \$2.

The text of this volume is found in the closing sentence of the introduction: "The Hungarians are the most bewildering, fascinating, and hospitable race in Europe I have ever met, but to know what they are going to do next is to assume the office of the seer." Some very vivid descriptive writing about a comparatively unknown fascinating people makes this volume



Illustration (reduced) from "Servia and the Servians."

an unusually attractive work of descriptive travels. With all their fascination and high intellectual ability, Mr. Bovill thinks the Hungarians are lacking in that genius for practical organization which is necessary for continued political existence. Hungary, he says, is "over-political." The volume is illustrated with sixteen full-page pictures in color by William Pascoe and twelve other illustrations.

The Other Americans. By Arthur Ruhl. Scribners. 321 pp., ill. \$2.

Mr. Ruhl is a high-class journalist who recently made a more than usually extended tour throughout the continent of South America. He had the great good fortune to be present in Rio Janeiro and Buenos Aires at the time Secretary Root was presenting the good wishes of the North American republic to these "Other Americans" of the southern hemisphere. For, as Mr. Ruhl points out, to the people of Mexico, Brazil, Chile, and Argentina we are not Americans in the exclusive sense. We are *Norte-Americano* or *Yanki*. The Argentinian, the Brazilian, and the Peruvian is, he claims, quite as much an American as are we inhabitants of these United States. It has heretofore been our pleasure, says this author to ignore the "Other Americans," to know nothing really of what they or their cities are like, or their ambitions and problems. It is about these things that Mr. Ruhl discourses most entertainingly and informally in this volume, which is profusely illustrated from photographs. There is an appendix consisting of statistics and other data and a good index. We ought to know



ARTHUR RUHL.  
(Author of "The Other Americans.")

more about these "Other Americans," Mr. Ruhl insists, since half the western world is theirs.

#### BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

Economics. By Scott Nearing and Frank D. Watson. Macmillan. 499 pp. \$1.90.

This volume is a very good illustration of the modern type of textbooks in the science of political economy. Formerly there was little or no attempt to teach anything more than the theory of economics in our colleges, which after a time came to be supplemented by brief courses of lectures dealing with concrete economic phenomena. The present method of college instruction is quite different. The student is made acquainted not only with economic doctrine but with a considerable body of facts which illustrate and make clear the theories advanced. In the present volume this tendency is especially marked. The conditions of our economic life are set forth in concrete terms. For example, under the head of "Labor and Industrial Efficiency" such topics as immigration, city life, the school, child labor, women who work, are treated; and under "New Forms of Industry" we have discussions of the railroad as a public utility, railroad control, the Standard Oil Company, the United States Steel Corporation, the corporation and the public, and anti-trust legislation. A separate section is devoted to the subject of "Municipal Monopolies." Under the head of "Economic Experiments" the student is led to consider collective bargaining and the open shop, the eight-hour day, restriction of output, strikes and lockouts, boycotts and blacklists, the injunction in labor disputes, the trade agreement and arbitration, the trade union, and the methods and results of co-operation and profit-sharing. The lively and journalistic treatment of these vital present-day problems ought to impress the student with the importance and vitality of the whole subject of economics and should add much to the interest of classroom work.

Esperanto in Fifty Lessons. By Edmond Privat. Fleming H. Revell Company. 168 pp. \$0.50.

Esperanto at a Glance. By Edmond Privat. Fleming H. Revell Company. 96 pp. \$0.15.

English-Esperanto Dictionary. By J. C. O'Connor and C. F. Hayes. London: Review of Reviews. 200 pp. 1s. 6d.

Mr. Privat, a native of Switzerland, is well known to Esperantists all over the world as one of the foremost advocates and interpreters of the new language. His two little handy volumes are guides to a workable knowledge of Esperanto. The dictionary has had the revision and approval of Dr. Zamenhof, originator of the language, himself.

Principles of Physiology and Hygiene. By George W. Fitz, M. D. Holt. 357 pp., ill. \$1.12.

This is a high school textbook of more than ordinary interest. The writer has taught physiology for many years, chiefly in normal schools, and has come to know what are the real uses of a textbook in this subject and in what respect most of the existing books fall short of the demand. In the present volume particular attention has been given to the illustrations, many of which are entirely new, and in this as in other features of the book, advantage has been taken of the latest and most advanced work of specialists.

The Science of Jurisprudence. By Hannis Taylor. Macmillan. 676 pp. \$3.50.

In this scholarly work Dr. Taylor has given us a treatise on the growth of positive law, treating the subject by the historical method and classifying and defining its elements by the method of analysis. Dr. Taylor's many works on jurisprudence already published, which include "The Origin and Growth of the English Constitution," "International Public Law," and "Jurisdiction and Procedure of the Supreme Court of the United States," have gained a most respectful hearing for anything he writes. Dr. Taylor, it will be remembered, was formerly United States Minister to Spain.

A Short History of Engraving and Etching. By A. M. Hind. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 473 pp., ill. \$5.

This is a compendious historical treatise on the development of engraving and etching, designed principally for the use of collectors and students. It is copiously illustrated with photographs and other illustrations, and the text is supplemented by a full bibliography taking the form of a classified list and index of engravers. Mr. Hind is superintendent of the Department of Prints and Drawings in the British Museum.

Chaucer, a Bibliographical Manual. By Eleanor Prescott Hammond. Macmillan. 579 pp. \$3.

This is a discussion of the acknowledged authentic texts of Chaucer, with no attempt to include annotations or references to concordances. A full reference list and index add to its value.

The Housekeeper's Week. By Marion Harland. Bobbs-Merrill Company. 439 pp., ill. \$1.50.

This is a skilful grouping of suggestions regarding the various forms of housework under the days of the week. Those topics that are not especially related to any particular day are treated in separate chapters. The author has won a wide reputation through her treatises on cookery.

Clarkson's Standard American Dictionary of the English Language. Prepared under the editorial supervision of Thomas H. Russell, Albert C. Bean, and L. B. Vaughan. Chicago: The David B. Clarkson Company. 2176 pp., with copious illustrations, tables, maps, and diagrams. \$12.